

T H E
LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL
M A G A Z I N E,
A N D
B R I T I S H R E V I E W,
For M A R C H, 1793.

MEMOIRS OF THE REV. WILLIAM DERHAM, D.D.

WITH AN ELEGANT PORTRAIT.

WILLIAM DERHAM, who has been so justly celebrated as a christian, philosopher, and divine, was born at Stowton, near Worcester, on the 26th of November, 1657. He had his school education at Blockley, in that county, under the Rev. Nathaniel Collyer, and in his eighteenth year was admitted into Trinity College, Oxon, under the care of the Rev. Dr. Willes, father of the late Lord Chief Justice Willes. He took his degree of bachelor of arts, Jan. 28, 1678-9, and had then so distinguished himself by his learning and other valuable and eminent qualifications, that he was recommended by the then president of Trinity College to Dr. Ward, bishop of Salisbury, by whose recommendation he was appointed chaplain to the Dowager Lady Gray, of Warke, as soon as he entered into holy orders.

He was ordained deacon by Dr. Compton, bishop of London, May

Vol. X.

29, 1681, and priest by bishop Ward, just now mentioned, July 9, 1682. On the 5th of July, 1682, he was presented by Mr. Neville to the vicarage of Wargrave, in Berkshire; but he did not long continue there, for on the 31st of August, 1689, he was presented by Mrs. Jane Bray to the rectory of Upminster, in Essex, a living of about two hundred pounds value, and not more than fifteen miles from London: which living, at so convenient a distance from the metropolis of the kingdom, gave him an opportunity of conversing and keeping a correspondence with the greatest men in the nation. Being therefore placed in that quiet and retired station, suitable to his contemplative and philosophical temper, he applied himself with great eagerness to the study of nature, and to mathematics and experimental philosophy, in which he became so eminent, that he was soon after chosen fellow

X

of

of the Royal Society; and he proved one of the most useful and industrious members of it, frequently publishing in the *Philosophical Transactions* curious observations and valuable pieces, the particulars of which are as follow. Part of a letter, dated Dec. 6, 1697, giving an account of some experiments about the height of the mercury in the barometer, at top and bottom of the Monument (in London) and a description of a portable barometer. A letter, dated Jan. 13, 1697-8, about a contrivance to measure the height of the mercury of the barometer, by a circle on one of the weather plates, with a register or diary of the weather, observed every day at Upminster during the year 1698. A register of the weather, &c. as above, for the year 1699. Observations on the death-watch; or, that insect which makes a noise like the beats of a watch. Observations on the weather, rain, winds, &c. for 1699, 1700, 1701, 1702, compared with other observations made at Townley, in Lancashire, by Mr. Townley, and communicated to our author. An account of some spots observed in the sun in June 1703. Observations on the great storm, Nov. 26, 1703. The history of the death-watch. Account of an instrument for finding the meridian, with a description of the same. Experiments on the motion of pendulums in vacuo. A prospect of the weather, winds, and height of the mercury in the barometer, on the first day of the month; and of the whole rain every month in the year 1703. and the beginning of 1704, observed at Townley, in Lancashire, by R. Townley, Esq. and at Upminster, in Essex, by our author. Account of a globe of light seen in the heavens, 20th March, 1705-6. Tables of the weather, &c. for the year 1705. Account of a pyramidal appearance in the heavens, seen in Essex, April 3, 1707. Experiments and observations on the motion of sound, (in Latin) a long and curious paper.

On the migration of birds. Account of an eclipse of the sun, Sept. 8, 1708, as observed at Upminster, and of an eclipse of the moon, Sept. 18, 1708. Account of a strange meteor, or aurora borealis, in September or October, 1706. An account of a child's crying in the womb. The history of the great frost in 1708. Account of spots observed in the sun by our author, from 1703 to 1708; and from 1707 to 1711, of subterraneous trees found at Dagenham Breach, in Essex. An account of the eclipse of the moon, seen at Upminster, Jan. 12, 1711-12. Of a woman big with child, and having the small-pox, delivered of a child having the same distemper, Sept. 8, 1713. An account of the rain at Upminster for eighteen years, and various other papers.

Of other works published by our author, was the *Artificial Clock-maker*. In 1711 and 1712, he preached sixteen sermons at Boyle's lectures, which were published in 1713, under the title of "*Physico Theology, or Demonstration of the Being and Attributes of God, from his Works of Creation*;" and in pursuance of the same design, in 1714, he published his *Astro Theology*.

On the accession of George I. Mr. Derham was noticed by the court, and appointed chaplain to the Prince of Wales; and soon after, canon of Windsor. The university of Oxford conferred on him the degree of doctor in divinity by diploma.

The last thing our author published of his own was a sermon, entitled, "*Christ's Theology, or a Demonstration of the divine Authority of the Christian Religion*." It was not only with his own writings he improved the world, but by publishing some pieces of the late Mr. Ray's, and the philosophical experiments and observations of the late Mr. Hook.

He had collected a curious specimen of insects, and the male and female of most kinds of birds in this island.

island. Having thus spent his life in the agreeable study of nature, he resigned his soul to his Maker on the 5th of April, 1735, and was bu-

ried at Upminster. Dr. Derham, in his person, was tall, and of a healthy constitution. His moral character was amiable.

BIOGRAPHIANA;

OR, ANECDOTES OF ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS.

NUMBER XII.

Cardinal MAZARINE.

CARDINAL RICHLIEU, who knew mankind very well, said, on his first conference with Mazarine on some public business, "I have been just conversing with the greatest politician I have ever met with. The world, I believe, has never produced such another. Time and I," said he, "against any other two." There is a medal of him in the cabinets of the curious, representing the Cardinal on horseback, between the two armies of France and Spain, near Casal, with his hat in his hand, and crying out, "Paix, paix." His exertions in favour of peace, on that occasion, were crowned with success. He was rather apt to be intimidated on some occasions. His brother, the Cardinal of Aix, used to say, "Faites du bruit seulement a mon frere, il cessera bientot."—"Only make a noise, and you will make my brother quiet." On his death-bed he was told of the appearance of a comet, which was supposed to be the predictor of the deaths of great persons, he replied coolly, "En verité la comete me fait trop d'honneur."—"Really the comet does me too much honour."

FENELON.

Every man of worth and of literature must grieve that there has been no good life of this excellent prelate yet published; that written by the Chevalier Ramfay is a trifling performance, and composed with none of that enthusiasm which one would have thought the living familiarly with this great prelate would have produced, and which made Lord Peterboro' cry out, when he had only passed a few days with him

at his palace at Cambray, "If I stay here two days longer, I shall become a christian in spite of myself." His famous book, the *Maxims of the Saints*, was condemned by the pope, who was still, however, so much impressed by the purity of the prelate's character who composed it, that he wrote to some of his brethren who were in opposition to him—"Hic peccavit excessu amoris divini, sed vos peccistis defectu amoris proximi." Fenelon so completely submitted to the pope's decision, that from his own pulpit, at Cambray, he denounced his own book as heretical, and as having deservedly incurred the censure of the head of the catholic church; and made a present to the society of the church of Cambray of a magnificent case for the consecrated wafer, embossed in gold, and supported by two angels, one of which is trampling under his feet some heretical books; amongst them is one with this title, "*Maximes des Saints*." The Duke of Marlborough used to give his officers a particular charge never to do any mischief to the estates of the archbishop of Cambray. He is buried in his own cathedral, where his family have erected to him a monument with the following epitaph, and with which I think M. d'Alembert, in his eloge upon his character and writings, very unjustly finds fault.

Seculi literati decus
Omnes dicendi lepores, virtuti
Ac veritati sacravit
Et dum sapientiam alter Homerus
spirabat
Se suosque mores infcius retextit
In utraque fortunâ sibi conficius

In prosperâ, aulæ favores ne dum
penſavit
Adeptos etiam abdicavit.
In adversâ Deo magis adhæsit.
Antistitum normâ
Gregem sibi creditum, assiduâ fovit
præsentia
Verbo nutrit, erudit exemplo.
Opibus sublevavit.
Exteris perinde carus ac suis
Gallos inter & hostes cum esset
medius,
Hos & illos, ingenii famâ & comi-
tate morum
Sibi devinxit.
Maturus Cælo
Vitam laboribus exercitum,
Virtutibus illustratum
Meliorē vitâ commutavit
Mat. Jan. 1715.

Annum Agens Sexages, & Tertium.

Drevet's famous print of Fenelon is the best commentary upon the Duke of Saint Simon's description of this excellent prelate. The eyes appear to strike with sacred fire. His directions for the conscience of a king was written for his dear pupil, the Duke of Burgundy; and, from the good sense, and the sound morals with which it abounds, might be recommended to the perusal of every sovereign. His treatise on the education of young women is excellent, and written with that elegance and simplicity of style, which in general characterise the writings of Fenelon. When the Duke of Burgundy was on his way to take the command of the French army, he passed through Cambray, and paid a visit to Fenelon, who was then in disgrace with Louis XIV. On parting, he took him by the hand, and said, "Je fais ce que je vous dois, & vous savez ce que je vous suis."

JAMES the Second,

Said one day to M. Clifton, "I do not know how it is, but I have never known a *modest* man make his way at court." "Please your majesty, whose fault is that?" replied M. Clifton. The papers of this un-

fortunate prince, together with those of his successors, are at present in the Scots college at Paris, as well as the archives of the see of Glasgow, and many curious charters and documents respecting Scotland. It is a pity that they have not been purchased for the Paper Office of London, or the British Museum. They have been indeed offered to government for a pecuniary satisfaction, and it were devoutly to be wished that government had accepted of the offer, as in the present distracted state of France, when the modern Goths are destroying every record, the only opportunity of recovering these curious monuments of British history may have been lost. Economy in a matter of such importance as this is to history and to literature, is very ill employed. A great country should ever deem it beneath its dignity to spare its money, when a proper, nay great national object, is presented for the expenditure of it.

Cardinal MAZARINE.

Cardinal de Richlieu said of this celebrated politician, "If I wished to cheat the devil himself, I would employ the person of Mazarine. Don Louis d'Harro said, however, of him, that he had this defect as a politician, that he had always the appearance of endeavouring to deceive those with whom he was treating. On his return to Paris, after the Fronde, he made a great many dukes, and said, jokingly on their creation, "J'en ferai autant qu'il fera honteux de l'être & de ne l'être pas." One of his maxims was—"Intus ut lubet, extra ut moris est." He said once to his nieces, who were not very regular in their behaviour at mass, "If you have no regard for your duty, have a regard, I beg, to yourselves and to me." The Cardinal had a very curious collection of state papers of different countries, which (when the parliament, after having banished him, caused to be sold by auction with his other effects) were bought for the court of Brunswick.

CÆSAR

CÆSAR BORGIA.

The end of this artful and consummate scoundrel was by no means so illustrious as it should have been. This man, who should have died on a scaffold, was killed in a small skirmish near Pampeluna. On his death-bed he said, "Whilst I lived, I provided for every thing except death; and now I must die, and am unprovided to die." The accounts of the crimes of Cæsar Borgia, and of his father, Alexander the Sixth, are no doubt much exaggerated by the writers of the times.

The account of the banquet, at which he was supposed to have poisoned many cardinals intentionally, and his father by mistake, is proved by Guiccardini to have been a falsehood. Of the father, Alexander the Sixth, who bought the papacy, and who indemnified himself afterwards by selling indulgences, &c. some poet says well—

Vendit Alexander, missas altaria claves
Vendere jure potest, emerat ille prius.

Our pope sells altars, prayers, may heaven
and hell,
What he has bought, sure he may safely
sell.

JOHN CALVIN,

Appears to have been as great a persecutor in religious opinions, as his power would permit him to be. He seems to have exercised it very improperly in burning Sevetus at Geneva, who had written against the Trinity. In Sevetus's book against the Trinity, (which is now become very scarce) there is a passage which had led many persons to suppose that he knew the circulation of the blood through the lungs.—Calvin's seal was a hand with a heart in it, to shew, I suppose, his correctness and openness of mind.

A Lutheran had written against him, and amongst other accusations that he had made, accused him of being a great declaimer, rather than an argumentative writer. "Il a beau faire," says Calvin, in his answer to him, "jamais il ne le per-

suadera a personne, l'univers sçait avec quelle precision je presse un argument, avec quelle precision je sçais ecrire." To prove all this, however, he thus addresses his adversary—"Ton ecole n'est qu'une puante etable a pourceaux. m'entends tu chien? m'entends tu bien frenetique? m'entends tu bien grosse-bête?" Calvin's works are in nine volumes, folio. The *Dictionnaire Historique* says, "Les curieux recherchent un traité singulier de Calvin, pour procurer que les ames ne dorment pas jusqu'au jour du jugement." Paris, 1558, 8vo.

PATRU.

Our anecdote-mongers are apt to attend very much to what passes in the last moments of the lives of those persons of whom they collect the incidents and bons mots. What Patru, the celebrated French lawyer, said at that awful period, should in some degree repress their ardour in that respect. Patru was supposed throughout life to have been a Sceptic. Bossuet, the bishop of Meaux, (le grand Convertisseur) as he was sometimes called, waited upon him in his last illness, and told him, that as the world had in general taken him for an Esprit fort, it might be, perhaps, right for him to undeceive the world, by making his confession of faith, and by saying something that might edify them, whom he, perhaps, had before scandalized. "Alas, my lord," replied he, "it is much better that I should say nothing. In my situation, in general, no one speaks but from weakness or vanity." "Il est plus a propos, monseigneur, que je me taise. On ne parle dans ces moments ordinairement que par foiblesse ou par vanité."

The President Mole.

What is effected by spirit and courage in any tumult is indeed wonderful; the people feel that they are wrong, and are appalled by the holding up a feather against them. This illustrious magistrate, who

who is represented in Cardinal de Maty's Memoirs, as more resembling Cato of Utica, in his integrity and intrepidity, than any person of modern times, was repeatedly threatened with assassination during the time of the *Fronde* at Paris, for not taking the popular side on that occasion; he, however, continually appeared in public, and did his duty in parliament and every where else.—When one of his friends expressed his surprize at his not taking the least precaution, after the repeated menaces that had been thrown out against him, he replied nobly—“Il y a bien loin du poignard d'un scelerat, au cœur d'un homme de bien.”—“My good friend, you do not know the immense distance there is between the poignard of a rascal, and the heart of an honest man.”

The President died quietly in his bed, and lived long enough to see peace and tranquillity restored to his country. Of a late English ministry Dr. Johnson used to say, that such a bunch of timidity and imbecility never disgraced any country. They suffered themselves to be bullied at home by their opponents; and the unsuccessful commanders of their fleets and armies, after having, by incapacity, and a want of proper attachment to the cause in which they were engaged, destroyed what was committed to their charge, were permitted to return unmolested to that country, whose dearest interests they had sacrificed, and join in the cry against their own employers.

—Pudet hæc opprobria nobis
Et dici potuissè, & non potuissè veselli.

AN ACCOUNT OF PARHELIA.

IN A LETTER FROM THE REV. JAMES A. HAMILTON, D.D. M. R. I. A. TO
THE REV. HENRY USSHER, D.D.

I Beg leave, through you, to communicate to the Royal Irish Academy, the following very curious optical phenomena which I observed September 24, 1783, at Cookstown, where I then resided, and paid a pretty regular attention to astronomical and meteorological observations.

Wednesday, September 24, 1783, as I was preparing to observe the sun passing the meridian, before the 1st limb touched the centre wire, it was obscured by a dark well-defined cloud, about 10° in diameter. Upon going to the door of the transient room, to see if it was likely soon to pass off the disk of the sun, I observed the following phenomena:

From the western edge of the cloud issued a luminous arc parallel to the horizon, perfectly well defined, extending exactly to the northern meridian; it was about $30'$ broad, white, and ended in a blunted termination. On it were

two parhelia; the nearest to the sun displaying the prismatic colours; the remote one white, and both ill defined. In a short time the cloud had passed off, and shewed the luminous almicanter, reaching perfect to the true sun. While things were thus situated, I measured with an accurate sextant the distances of the parhelia; I found the coloured one 26° , the remoter one 90° , from the true sun. Just as I had done this, a new and prismatic circle surrounded the sun, immediately within the prismatic parhelion. And now another coloured parhelion appeared on the eastern board. The sextant with its face up and down exactly measured this and the former at the original distance of 26° ; the luminous almicanter still remaining perfect. In about ten or twelve minutes, whitish hazy clouds came on, and obscured all these uncommon appearances.

ON

ON THE PANGOLIN OF BAHAR.

BY MATTHEW LESLIE, ESQ.

From the Asiatic Researches.

THE singular animal which M. Buffon describes by the name of Pangolin, is well-known in Europe since the publication of his *Natural History* and Goldsmith's elegant abridgement of it; but if the figure exhibited by Buffon was accurately delineated from the three animals, the spoils of which he had examined, we must consider that which has been lately brought from Caracciah to Chitra, and sent thence to the presidency, as a remarkable variety, if not a different species, of the Pangolin; ours has hardly any neck, and though some filaments are discernable between the scales, they can scarce be called bristles; but the principal difference is in the tail; that of Buffon's animal being long, and tapering almost to a point, while that of ours is much shorter, ends obtusely, and resembles in form and flexibility the tail of a lobster. In other respects, as far as we can judge from the dead subject, it has all the characters of Buffon's Pangolin; a name derived from that by which the animal is distinguished in Java, and consequently preferable to *Manis* or *Pholidotus*, or any other appellation deduced from an European language. As to the scaly lizard, the scaled armadillo, and the five-nailed ant-eater, they are manifestly improper designations of this animal; which is neither a lizard nor an armadillo in the common acceptance; and, though it be an ant-eater, yet it essentially differs from the hairy quadruped usually known by that general description. We are told, that the Malabar name of this animal is *Alungu*: the natives of Bahár call it *bajár-cít*, or, as they explain the word, stone-vermin; and in the stomach of the animal before us was found about a tea-

cupful of small stones, which had probably been swallowed for the purpose of facilitating digestion; but the name alludes, I believe, to the hardness of the scales; for *vajracíta* means in Sanscrit the diamond, or thunderbolt, reptile, and *vajra* is a common figure in the Indian poetry for any thing excessively hard. The *vajracíta* is believed by the Pandits to be the animal which gnaws their sacred stone, called *ságrámásilá*; but the Pangolin has apparently no teeth, and the *ságráms*, many of which look as if they had been worm-eaten, and perhaps only decayed in part by exposure to the air.

This animal had a long tongue shaped like that of aameleon; and, if it was nearly adult, as we may conclude from the young one found in it, the dimensions of it were much less than those which Buffon assigns generally to his Pangolin; for he describes its length as six, seven, or eight feet, including the tail, which is almost, he says, as long as the body, when it has attained its full growth; whereas ours is but thirty-four inches long from the extremity of the tail to the point of the snout, and the length of the tail is fourteen inches; but, exclusively of the head, which is five inches long, the tail and body are, indeed, nearly of the same length; and the small difference between them may show, if Buffon be correct in this point, that the animal was young: the circumference of its body in the thickest part is twenty inches, and that of the tail only twelve.

We cannot venture to say more of this extraordinary creature, which seems to constitute the first step from the quadruped to the reptile, until we have examined it alive, and observed its different instincts; but

but as we are assured, that it is common in the country round Khânpûr, and at Châtigâm, where the native Muselmans call it the land-carp, we shall possibly be able to give on some future occasion a fuller account of it. There are in our Indian provinces many animals, and many hundreds of medicinal plants, which have either not been

described at all, or, what is worse, ill described by the naturalists of Europe; and to procure perfect descriptions of them from actual examination, with accounts of their several uses in medicine, diet, or manufactures, appears to be one of the most important objects of our institution.

OF THE METHOD OF DISTILLING,
AS PRACTISED BY THE NATIVES AT CHATRA IN RAMGUR, AND IN
THE OTHER PROVINCES.

BY ARCHIBALD KEIR, ESQ.

From the Same.

THE body of the still they use, is a common, large, unglazed, earthen, water jar, nearly globular, of about twenty-five inches diameter at the widest part of it, and twenty-two inches deep to the neck, which neck rises two inches more, and is eleven inches wide in the opening. Such at least was the size of the one I measured; which they filled about a half with fomented mähwah-flowers, that swam in the liquor to be distilled.

The jar they placed in a furnace, not the most artificial, though seemingly not ill adapted to give a great heat with but a very little fuel. This they made by digging a round hole in the ground, about twenty inches wide, and full three feet deep; cutting an opening in the front, sloping down to the bottom, on the sides perpendicular, of about nine inches wide, and fifteen long, reckoning from the circle where the jar was to come, to serve to throw in the wood at, and for a passage to the air. On the side too, they cut another small opening, of about four inches by three, the jar, when placed, forming one side of it, to serve as a chimney for the smoke to go out at. The bottom of the earth was rounded up like a cup. Having then placed the jar in this, as far as it would go down; they

covered it above, all round, with clay, except at the two openings, till within about a fifth of its height; when their furnace was completed.

In this way, I reckon, there was a full third of the surface of the body of the still or jar exposed to the flame, when the fire came to be lighted; and its bottom not reaching to within two feet of where the fuel was, left a capacious hollow between them, whence the wood, that was short and dry, when lighted, being mostly converted into flame, and circulating on so great a surface of the still, gave a much stronger heat than could else have been produced from so very little fuel; a consideration well worth the attention of a manufacturer, in our country more especially, where firing is so dear. There indeed, and particularly as coal is used, it would be better, no doubt, to have a grate; and that the air should enter from below. As to the benefit resulting from the body of the still being of earthen ware, I am not quite so clear in it. Yet as lighter substances are well known to transmit heat more gradually and slowly than the more solid, such as metals; may not earthen vessels, on this account, be less apt to burn their contents, so as to communicate an empyreumatic taste and smell to the liquor

liquor that is distilled, so often, and so justly complained of, with us? At any rate, in this country, where pots are made so cheap, I should think them greatly preferable, as, at least, much less expensive than those which the gentlemen engaged in this manufacture most commonly employ; though of this they are best able to judge.

Having thus made their furnace, and placed the body of the still in it, as above described, they to this luted on, with moistened clay, to its neck, at the opening, what they here call an *adkur*; forming with it, at once, a cover for the body of the still, with a suitable perforation in it to let the vapour rise through; and the under part of the alembic. The *adkur* was made with two earthen pans, having round holes in their middles, of about four inches diameter; and their bottoms being turned opposite the one to the other, they were cemented together with clay, forming a neck of junction thus, of about three inches, with the small rising on the upper pan. The lowermost of these was more shallow, and about eleven inches wide, so as to cover exactly the opening at the neck of the jar, to which they luted it on with clay. The upper and opposite of these was about four inches deep, and fourteen inches wide, with a ledge round its perforation in the middle, rising, as is already said, from the inner side of the neck, of about half an inch high, by which a gutter was formed to collect the condensed spirit as it fell down; and from this there was a hole in the pan to let it run off by; to which hole they occasionally luted on a small hollow bamboo, of about two feet and a half in length, to convey it to the receiver below. The upper pan had also another hole in it, of about an inch square, at near a quarter of its circumference from the one below just spoken of, that served to let off the water employed in

cooling; as shall be mentioned presently.

Their *adkur* being thus fitted to the jar, they completed the alembic by taking a copper pot, such as we use in our kitchens, of about five inches deep, eight wide at the mouth, and ten at the bottom, which was rather flattish; and turning its mouth downward, over the opening in the *adkur*, luted it down on the inside of the jar with clay.

For their cooler they raised a feat, close upon, and at the back part of the furnace, about a foot higher than the bottom of the copper-pot; on this they placed a two or three gallon-pot, with a round hole, of about half an inch, in the side of it; and to this hole, before they lighted their fire, they luted on a short tube of a like bore; placing the pot, and directing its spout so as that, when filled with water, it threw a constant and uniform stream of it, from about a foot high, or near the center of the bottom of the copper-pot; where it was diffused pretty completely over its whole surface; and the water falling down into the upper part of the pan of the *adkur*, it thence was conveyed through the square hole already mentioned, by a trough luted on to it for that purpose, to a cooling reservoir a few feet from the furnace; from which they took it up again to supply the upper pot as occasion required.

As their stock of water, however, in this sort of circulation was much smaller than it seemingly ought to have been, being scarcely more than six or eight gallons, it too soon became hot; yet in spite of this disadvantage, that so easily might have been remedied, and the shortness of the conducting tube, which had nothing but the common air to cool it, there ran a stream of liquor from the still; and but very little vapour rising from it; beyond any thing I had ever seen from stills of a much larger size, fitted with a worm and cooler. In about three hours time,

indeed, from their lighting of the fire, they drew off full fifteen bottles of spirit; which is more, by a great deal, I believe, than could have been done in our way from a still of twice the dimensions.

The inconveniences of a worm and cooler, which are no small expense either, I have myself often experienced; and if these could be avoided in so simple a way, that might easily be improved, the hints that are here offered may be of some use. The thin metal head is certainly well adapted, I think, to transmit the heat to the water, which is constantly renewed; and which, if cold, as it ought to be, must absorb the fastest possible: whereas, in our way, the water being confined in a tub, that, from the nature of its porous substance, in a great degree rather retains than lets the heat pass away, it soon accumulates in it, and becomes very hot, and, though renewed pretty often, never answers the purpose of cooling the vapour in the worm so expeditiously and effectually as is done by their more simple and less expensive apparatus. In this country more especially, where labour and earthen wares are so cheap, for as many rupees and less, twenty furnaces with stills and every thing belonging to them, independent of the copper-pots, might very well be erected, that would yield above a hundred gallons of spirits a-day; allowing each still to be worked only twice: so very cheap indeed is arrack here, to the great comfort of my miners, and of many thoughtless people beside, that for one single *peysa*, not two farthings sterling, they can get a whole *cutcha-seer* of it in the Bazar, or above a full English pint, and enough to make them completely intoxicated; objects often painful to be seen.

Of the superior excellence of metal in giving out heat from itself, and from vapour contained in it, we have a very clear proof, in

what is daily performed on the cylinder of the steam engine: for cold water being thrown on it when loaded, the contained vapour is constantly condensed; whence, on a vacuum being thus formed, and the weight of the atmosphere acting on the surface of the piston, attached to the arm of the balance, it is made to descend, and to raise the other arm that is fixed to the pump; while this, being somewhat heavier, immediately sinks again, which carries up the piston, while the cylinder is again filled: and thus alternately by cooling and filling it, is the machine kept in motion; the power exerted in raising the pump-arm being always in proportion to the diameter of the cylinder, or to the surface of the piston, which is exactly fitted to it, and on which the pressure acts.

The contrivance too, of having the under part of the alembic, where the condensed vapour is collected, or upper part of what they call the *adkur*, of earthenware, of so great a thickness, and of course at so great a distance from the heat in the body of the still, is well imagined to keep the spirits the coolest possible when collected and running off.

By thus cooling and condensing the vapour likewise so suddenly as it rises, there is in a great measure a constant vacuum made, or as much as possible can be: but that both steam rises faster, and that water boils with much less heat, when the pressure is taken away from its surface, is an axiom in chymistry too well known to need any illustration; it boiling in vacuum, when the heat is only ninety or ninety-five by Farenheit's thermometer; whereas in the open air, under the pressure of the atmosphere, it requires no less than that of two hundred and twelve, ere it can be brought to the boiling point.

I must further observe, that the superior excellence of condensing the vapour so effectually and speedily in the alembic to our method of
doing

doing it on a worm and cooler, is greatly on the side of the former; both from the reasons I have already adduced, and because of the small stream of vapour that can be only forced into the worm, where it is condensed gradually as it descends; but above all, from the nature of vapour itself, with respect to the heat contained in it, which of late has been proved by the very ingenious Dr. Black to be greater by far than, before his discoveries, was imagined. For vapour he has shewn to be in the state of a new fluid, where water is dissolved by heat; with the assistance perhaps, if I may be allowed a conjecture, of the air which it contains; and all fluids, as he has clearly demonstrated, on their becoming such, absorb a certain quantity of heat, which becomes what he very properly calls latent heat, it being heat not appearing either to the senses or to the thermometer, while they remain in that liquid state; but showing itself immediately by its effects on whatever is near it, upon their changing their form from fluid to solid; as on water becoming ice, or metals fixing, and the like. In the solution of salts also, there is an absorption of heat, as we daily experience, in the cooling of our liquors by dissolving saltpetre in water; and this he has found to be the case with water itself, and other fluids, when passing into a state of vapour by boiling. From the most accurate and judicious experiments, indeed, he infers, and with the greatest appearance of truth, that the heat thus concealed in vapour raised by boiling, from any given bulk of water, would be fully sufficient, if collected in a piece of iron of the like size, to make it perfectly red-hot. What then must be the effect of so much heat, communicated in our way of distilling to the worm, and to the water in the tub, will be sufficiently evident from what has been said, to prove I think that we have hitherto em-

ployed a worse and more defective method than we might have done with respect to cooling at least, both in the making of spirits, and in other distillations of the like kind, where a similar mode is adopted.

The poor ignorant Indian indeed, while he with wonder surveys the vast apparatus of European distillers, in their immense large stills, worms, tubs, and expensive furnaces, and finds that spirits thus made by them are more valued, and sell much dearer than his own, may very naturally conclude, and will have his competitors join with him in opinion, that this must alone surely be owing to their better and more judicious manner of distilling with all those ingenious and expensive contrivances, which he can no wise emulate: but in this, it would appear, they are both equally mistaken; imputing the effects, which need not be controverted perhaps, to a cause from which they by no means proceed; the superiority of their spirits not at all arising from the superior excellence of their stills and furnaces, nor from their better mode of conducting the distillation in any respect; but chiefly rather from their greater skill and care in the right choice, and proper management, of the materials they employ in fermentation; and above all, as I apprehend, from the vast convenience they have in casks, by which, and from their abilities in point of stock, they are enabled, and do in fact, in general keep their spirits for a certain time, whence they are mel- lowed and improved surprizingly both in taste and salubrity.

With respect to the latter improvement, I mention it more particularly here, and the more willingly also, as in general it seems to have been but too little attended to where a due attention to it might be of the greatest use. For of all things that have been found grateful to the human palate, there was none ever

used, I believe, more hurtful to the body, and to the nerves especially, than fresh drawn ardent spirits: and this owing evidently to the principle of inflammability, of which with water they are mostly made up, being then in a more loose and detached state, less assimilated with the other principles than it afterwards becomes with time. By time indeed, it is gradually not only more assimilated, but at length changes its nature altogether; so as to become, what was at first so pernicious, a benign, cooling liquor: when the spirit is strong, the change, it is true, goes on more slow and imperceptibly; yet as a partial alteration is only wanted to mellow it for use, a few years keeping would be sufficient to answer the purpose here; and whether or no it could be possible to prevent any other from being sold than that which had been kept a certain time, is well worth the consideration of the legislature.

That the great noxious quality of fresh drawn spirits, is chiefly owing to the cause I have assigned, a little attention, and comparing of the effects that are uniformly produced by the principle of inflammability, wherever it is met with in a loose and weakly combined state, as it is in them, will easily convince us of: whereas, when fully assimilated either in spirits, or with any other body, it becomes entirely inert, and useful, more or less, either for food or physic, according to what it happens to be united with. Thus we find it in putrid animal substances, where it lately formed part of a healthy body, being now detached, or but weakly united with air, exhibiting a most offensive, and pernicious poison: though this absorbed again by a living plant is presently changed into good and wholesome nourishment; to the vegetable immediately, and to any animal who may afterwards choose to eat it. In like manner sulphur, which is a compound of this principle alone, united to a pure acid, the most

destructive to all animal and vegetable substances, yet it being here perfectly inert also, may be taken into the body with safety; when, if loosened either by heat or by an alkaline salt uniting with the acid, its noxious quality is presently made perceivable to whoever comes within its reach.

Many other instances of a like nature might easily be added, and some too more apposite perhaps than those I have here mentioned; but every one's own experience, with what I have already said, will sufficiently evince the propriety and utility of putting an entire stop, if possible, to the sale of what ought to be so justly prohibited; and this, in its consequences, may even help to lead to other more effectual means of correcting, in a great measure, the cruel abuse of spirits in general, that has been long so loudly and so justly complained of, among the soldiers, lower Europeans, and our servants in this country; where the very worst and indeed poisonous sort of them is daily sold at so very cheap a rate.

All I need further add with respect to distillation, and on the superior advantages in the mode of conducting it here to that we have been in use to employ, for the raising of spirits, simple waters, and the like, is only to observe, I have no sort of doubt but that the intelligent chymical operators at home, if ever they should get a hint of it, will make no manner of scruple to use it also, and to improve upon it greatly by a few ingenious contrivances, which their knowledge and experience will so easily suggest. The principles on which it seems founded indeed, especially with regard to their way of cooling, are so striking and just, that in many other distillations besides those of spirits and waters, they may be employed, I apprehend, with very great profit and advantage. I shall now, however, confine myself to mention only the benefit that may result from a like process

process in the raising of the finer aromatics, while the heat contrived, as in our way, besides impeding the distillation, must from its long action on such subtle bodies, probably injure them greatly in the essential quality on which their excellence depends; and upon this very account I am apt to imagine that the greater quantity obtained, and the superior quality of the oil of roses made in this country, to that made from roses with us, is owing chiefly, if not entirely, to their better and more judicious manner of extracting it here. For, with us, the still being made of metal, may in the first instance, impart too great and too sudden a degree of heat; and next, the oil continuing so long in the vapour, and that much compressed, may, in so delicate a subject, not only entirely almost unite it with the water, so as to render the separation impracticable, but may at the same time alter its essence so completely, as that it can no longer appear in the state it otherwise might have been found in, had the operation been better conducted, or in the way they do here. A very few trials however would much better certify this than all I can possibly say on the subject, or in fact than all the reasoning in the world. Therefore, as to my

own particular opinion of the flavour and quality of the roses at home being equal if not superior to that of those in this country, I may be entirely silent; the rules and reasoning in chymistry, though serving greatly to enlarge and improve our understanding, being what of themselves can never be depended upon till confirmed by facts and experiments; where many things often turn out very different from what, from our best and most plausible arguments, we had the greatest reason to expect. Or, if it should be found to be really true, what I have often heard asserted, by those however who had it only from others, but not of their own particular knowledge, that in distilling their oil of roses at the places where they make it the best, they use also with their roses sandal wood, and some other aromatics, no roses whatsoever, it is plain, could ever of themselves be made to afford a like oil; nor without such an addition as they employ. A circumstance, by the bye, that might possibly easily be certified by some one of the many ingenious correspondents of the Society, who may happen to reside where it is made; and a knowledge of the real truth of it would certainly be of use.

AN ATTEMPT TO ACCOUNT FOR THE CHANGE OF CLIMATE, IN THE MIDDLE COLONIES OF NORTH-AMERICA.

BY HUGH WILLIAMSON, M.D.

From the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society.

IT is generally remarked by people who have resided long in Pennsylvania and the neighbouring colonies, that within the last forty or fifty years there has been a very observable change of climate, that our winters are not so intensely cold, nor our summers so disagreeably warm as they have been.

That we may be enabled to account for these phenomena, it will

be necessary to take a transient view of the general cause of winds, and the remarkable difference of heat and cold, that is observed in different countries under the same parallels.

Though the sun is doubtless the general source of heat, yet we observe that countries are not heated in proportion to their distance from the sun, nor even in proportion to their distance from the equator.—

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The inhabitants of the polar circles are hardly a perceivable distance, not a twenty-thousandth part farther from the sun, than those between the tropics, and yet the former are chilled with perpetual cold, while the others are scorched with constant heat.

When the rays of the sun strike the earth in a perpendicular direction, they will be reflected in the same direction on the particles of air through which they have passed, and thus increase their heat; a greater number of direct rays will also strike the earth in any given space, than when they fall obliquely; therefore, the nearer the direction of the sun's rays is to a perpendicular with the surface of the earth, the greater *cæteris paribus* will the heat be. Hence, countries should be colder the nearer they are to the poles. But,

We observe that the air may be heated to a very different degree in different countries, which are in the same latitude, according as they abound in rough mountains, fertile plains, or sandy deserts; as they are surrounded by land or by sea, or according to the different winds which prevail in those countries. The temperature of Pennsylvania is very different from that of Portugal; and the temperature of England is different from that of Saxony, on the neighbouring continent, though they be under the same parallels. In order then that we may be enabled to form an estimate of the heat of any country, we must not only consider the latitude of the place, but also the face and situation of the country, and the winds which generally prevail there, if any of these should alter, the climate must also be changed. The face of a country may be altered by cultivation, and a transient view of the general cause of winds will convince us, that their course may also be changed.

It is generally believed that most winds are occasioned by the heat of

the sun. Were the sun to stand still over any particular part of the surface of the earth, the wind would constantly blow to that place from all directions. For the air in that part being rarified by the heat of the sun, would be expanded, and thus become lighter, whence it would ascend, and the heavier air in the neighbouring parts would rush in, to occupy its place; this too being heated both by the sun's rays and by the warm surface of the earth, would instantly ascend to give place to that which was colder. But as the sun moves, or seems to move, between the tropics, from east to west, there should be a constant current of air setting towards the sun from the north, south, and eastward, while the current, which would also come from the west, is prevented or turned back by the sun, who moves with great rapidity on the opposite direction. The current coming from the north and south, falls in with that from the eastward, and is presently bent in the same direction. This constitutes what seamen call a *trade wind*; such is found in the Atlantic, and in the Great South Sea.

Were the surface of the earth homogeneous, were it all covered with water, or all smooth dry land, the easterly winds would always prevail quite round the globe to some distance beyond the tropics. But the waters along the equator are divided by two or three considerable portions of land, which retain the heat in a different manner from the water, and reflect the sun's rays in very different proportions, so that they not only stop the easterly current of air, but often change it to the opposite direction. For along the westerly coast of Africa, and South-America, the winds commonly blow from the west. That is to say, they blow from a cold surface to that which is warmer; they blow from the sea in upon the land,

For,

In warm countries, or in the warm

warm season of any country, the surface of the land is warmer than the surface of the water.

In cold seasons of temperate countries, the surface of the land is colder than the surface of the water.

The surface of the earth being immoveably exposed to the sun, receives and retains the heat, and grows warmer by every adventitious ray; so that a hard smooth surface will sometimes become intolerable to the touch, but the heat does not sink deep, except in a considerable progress of time.

The surface of the sea is not soon heated, for the particles which are uppermost this hour, will presently be overwhelmed by those which are colder, and they, by others in succession; whence it happens, that, though the surface of the sea will not become so warm by a summer's heat as the surface of the earth, in the same climate, yet the heat will penetrate deeper, and be longer retained.

Let us transfer these trite and general reasonings to the situation of our middle colonies, with respect to land and water. Our coast runs nearly from north-east to the south-west, so that if the land should at any time be colder than the sea, and a current of cold air should set towards the sea, it must pass from the north-west to the south-east: but such winds we find generally take place during our winter season. For the Atlantic, to the south-eastward, is greatly heated during the summer season, and will not soon lose that heat when the sun goes to the southward in the winter; add to this, a very notable circumstance, which is, that our coast is constantly washed by a current of warm water, which being driven to the west by the easterly trade winds near the equator, is checked in the Gulph of Mexico, and obliged to escape to the north-eastward, to give place to the succeeding current. But the surface of these colonies soon grows cold in the absence of the sun.

Hence violent torrents of winds pass towards the Atlantic during the winter season; the colder the air is over the continent, the more violent will those north-westers be.

Can we discover any change of circumstances, which might reduce the violence of those north-westers, or remove them entirely? It is very obvious that hard smooth surfaces reflect heat better than those which are rough and unequal; the surface of a looking-glass, or any polished metal, will reflect more light and heat, than the rough surface of a board. In the same manner we observe, that rocks and smooth beds of sand reflect more heat than a soft broken surface of clay. A clear smooth field also reflects more heat, than the same space would have done, when it was covered with bushes and trees.

If the surface of this continent were so clear and smooth, that it would reflect so much heat as might warm the incumbent atmosphere, equal to the degree of heat produced by the neighbouring Atlantic, an equilibrium would be restored, and we should have no stated north-west winds: but we have already made considerable approaches to this very period, several members of the Society must have observed, that our north-west winds, during the winter season, are less frequent, less violent, and of shorter continuance, than formerly they were. Seamen, who are deeply interested in this subject inform us, that in the winter season they have been beating off our coast three, four, or five weeks, not able to put in, by reason of the north-westers; they are now seldom kept off twice that number of days. It is also agreed, that the hardness of our frosts, the quantity and continuance of our snows, are very unequal now, to what they have been, since the settlement of this province.

It has been objected, that the small alteration which the surface of a country undergoes in being cleared and cultivated, is not equal

to producing such considerable changes of climate, it has been observed to take place in many parts of the world. I shall not say, that a change of climate may not arise from other causes than the one I have described. It is very certain, that the simple solution of water in air will produce cold, which may be increased by a solution of nitrous salt. There are sundry other causes, from which the heat of the air may be increased or diminished, yet I cannot recollect a single instance of any remarkable change of climate, which may not be fairly deduced from the sole cultivation of the country. The change which has happened in Italy, and some countries to the eastward, within the last seventeen centuries, is thought to be a strong objection to this general rule. It is said, "that Italy was better cultivated in the Augustine age than it is now; but the climate is much more temperate now than it was at that time. This seems to contradict the opinion, that the cultivation of a country will render the air more temperate."

I shall consider this observation the more attentively, because I find it has been made by an ingenious writer, of great classical erudition.*

It is not to be dissembled that their winters in Italy were extremely cold about seventeen hundred years ago. Virgil has carefully described the manner in which cattle are to be sheltered in the winter, lest they should be destroyed by the frost and snow; he also speaks of wine being frozen in the casks, and several other proofs of such extreme cold, as would surprize us in this province. Though it is also clear, that the Italians are now as great strangers to cold and frost, as those of Georgia or South-Carolina. To account for this remarkable change, we must go beyond the narrow limits of Italy; we must traverse the face of Hungary, Poland, and Germany, those

vast regions to the northward of Rome. The Germans have certainly made immense progress in population and agriculture, since Julius Cæsar with a few legions over-ran that country; for notwithstanding the elegance with which Cæsar describes his victories, he certainly had to contend with a set of barbarians and savages, whose country was rude and uncultivated as their minds. The general face of those kingdoms was covered with wild extensive forests, a few of which remain to this day. The small scattered tribes who occupied them, had done very little towards the perfection of agriculture. From these uncultivated deserts piercing north winds used to descend in torrents on the shivering Italian, though his own little commonwealth were finely cultivated. No person need be informed how numerous the nations are, who now inhabit Hungary, Poland, and Germany, or how generally those regions are now cultivated, even to the very edge of the Baltic and German Ocean, so that if the cold is greatly moderated in Germany, and the adjacent northern States, which I believe is generally allowed, we may easily perceive how it should be moderated to a much greater degree in Italy, which being in a low latitude, was only annoyed by the cold winds from the northern kingdoms. For the air was at that time so cold over those uncultivated regions, that it could effectually destroy the balance in the warmer atmosphere of Italy, which at present is not the case.

As we might have conjectured from established principles of philosophy, that clearing and smoothing the face of a country, would promote the heat of the atmosphere, and in many cases would prevent or mitigate those winter blasts, which are the general origin of cold, whence the winters must become more temperate; and as facts appear to support and confirm our reason-

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* See Philosophical Transactions, vol. LVIII.

ing on this subject, we may rationally conclude, that in a series of years, when the virtuous industry of posterity shall have cultivated the interior part of this country, we shall seldom be visited by frosts or snows, but may enjoy such a temperature in the midst of winter, as shall hardly destroy the most tender plants.

Perhaps it may be apprehended, that as clearing the country, will mitigate the cold of our winters, it will also increase the heat of our summers; but I apprehend, that on a careful attention to this subject we shall find, that the same cause will in those seasons appear to produce different effects, and that instead of more heat, we shall presently have less in summer than usual.

It is well known, that during the greatest summer heats of this or any other country, the extraordinary heat of the atmosphere does not rise to any considerable height. In the upper regions it is perpetually cold, both because the air in those parts is too far from the earth, to be warmed by the heat of its surface, and because the air in those regions not being pressed by such a weight of incumbent atmosphere is too rare to be susceptible of a great degree of heat; for the heat of the air, as of every other body, that is warmed by the sun, depends not only upon the simple action of the particles of light upon those of the air, but also upon the mutual action of the particles of air upon one another, which, by their elasticity, propagate or continue that motion, called heat, which was originally excited by the sun's rays. Therefore, the rarer the atmosphere is, the less heat will be produced therein by the sun, and vice versa. Hence we observe, that in the warmest countries the tops of mountains are always covered with snow. Whoever will carry a thermometer on a very warm day to the top of an high steeple, will find that the mercury immediately falls several degrees, and rises again as he descends. From this it is obvious

VOL. X.

that nothing is wanting in the midst of summer to render the country agreeably cool, but a proper mixture of the cold air which is above, with the warm air below. This would be effected by any cause that might increase our summer winds. For though the simple motion of the air does not by any means produce cold, yet moderate blasts will naturally introduce a colder atmosphere, especially when they pass over hills or any unequal surface, by which the equilibrium of the atmosphere is destroyed, the cold air always tending towards the surface. Hence a summer's gulf is generally attended by a sudden change in the temperature of the air. Tall timber greatly impedes the circulation of the air; for it retards the motion of that part which is near the surface, and which, from its density and situation being most heated, becomes the general origin of such agitations as take place in the upper regions. We shall often find it extremely sultry and warm in a small field, surrounded by tall woods, when no such inconvenience is perceived on an extensive clear plain in the neighbourhood. From these particulars we may conclude, that when this country shall be diversified, as it must be in a series of years, by vast tracts of clear land, intersected here and there by great ridges of uncultivated mountains, a much greater degree of heat being reflected by the plains than from the neighbouring mountains, and an easy circulation of air produced on the plains. Our land winds in summer, to say nothing of those which come from the sea, or from the lakes, must certainly be much fresher and more frequent than they now are, and consequently our summer heats be more temperate.

A considerable change in the temperature of our seasons may doubtless effect a change in the produce of our lands. Temperate seasons must be friendly to meadows and pasturage, provided we continue to get regular

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supplies

supplies of rain; but of this, there is some reason to doubt, unless our mountains, with which this country happily abounds, should befriend us greatly. The decrease of our frosts and snows in winter, must for many years prove injurious to our wheat and winter's grain. The vicissitudes of freezing and thawing have already become so frequent, that it is high time for the farmer to provide some remedy, whereby he may prevent his wheat from being thrown out in the winter season.

A considerable change in the temperature of our seasons, may one day oblige the tobacco planter to migrate towards the Carolinas and Florida, which will be the natural retreat of that plant, when the seasons admonish the Virginian to cultivate wheat and Indian corn. The tender vine, which would now be destroyed by our winter's frost, in a few years shall supply the North-American with every species of wine. Posterity will doubtless transplant the several odoriferous, aromatic, and medicinal plants of the eastern countries, which must flourish in one or another part of North-America, where they will find a climate and soil favourable to their growth, as that of their native country.

Every friend to humanity must rejoice more in the pleasing prospect of the advantages we may gain in point of health, from the cultivation of this country, than from all the additional luxuries we may enjoy, though both the Indies were brought to our doors. The salutary effects which have resulted from cleansing

and paving the streets of Philadelphia, are obvious to every inhabitant. For causes somewhat similar to these, the general improvement of the colonies have already produced very desirable effects. While the face of this country was clad with woods, and every valley afforded a swamp or stagnant marsh, by a copious perspiration through the leaves of trees or plants, and a general exhalation from the surface of ponds and marshes, the air was constantly charged with a gross putrescent fluid. Hence a series of irregular, nervous, bilious, remitting and intermitting fevers, which for many years have maintained a fatal reign through many parts of this country, but are now evidently on the decline. Pleuritic and other inflammatory fevers, with the several diseases of cold seasons, are also observed to remit their violence, as our winters grow more temperate.

Since the cultivation of the colonies, and the consequent change of climate, has such effects on the diseases of the human body, and must continue to produce such remarkable changes in their appearance, it is certainly the duty of every physician, to be careful to trace the history of every disease, observe the several changes they undergo, and mark, with a jealous attention, the rise of every new disease, which may appear on the decline of others, that so he may be enabled to bring effectual and seasonable relief to such persons, as may be committed to his care.

OBSERVATIONS ON BEES.

BY J. HUNTER, F. R. S.

[Continued from Page 104.]

Abstract from Mr. SCHIRACH.

THE following experiments were made to ascertain the origin of the queen bee:—"In twelve wooden boxes were placed twelve pieces of comb, four inches

"square, each containing both eggs
"and maggots, so suspended that the
"bees could come round every part
"of the comb: in each box was
"shut up a handful of working bees.
"Knowing that when bees are form-

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"ing a queen, they should be confined,* the boxes were kept shut for two days. When examined at the end of that period (six boxes only were opened), in all of them royal cells were begun, one, two, or three, in each; all of these containing a maggot four days old. In four days, the other six boxes were opened, and royal cells found in each, containing maggots five days old, surrounded by a large provision of jelly; and one of these maggots, examined in the microscope, in every respect resembled a working bee.

"This experiment was repeated, and the maggots selected to be made queens were three days old; and in seventeen days there were found in the twelve boxes fifteen lively, handsome queens.† These experiments were made in May, and the bees were allowed to work great part of the summer: the bees were examined one by one, but no drone could be discovered, and yet the queens were impregnated, and laid their eggs.‡

"The above experiment was repeated with pieces of comb, containing eggs only, in six boxes, but no preparations were made towards producing a queen.§

"The experiment of producing a

"queen bee from a maggot was repeated every month of the year, even in November.||

"A maggot three days old was procured from a friend, inclosed in an ordinary cell, and shut up with a piece of comb, containing eggs and maggots. That three days old was formed into a queen, and all the other maggots and eggs were destroyed.¶

"In above a hundred experiments a queen has been formed from maggots three days old."***

Wilhelm observes, that a queen cell, which is made while the bees are shut up, is formed by breaking down three common cells into one, when the maggot is placed in the center, after which the sides are repaired.

A young queen lately hatched was put into a hive, which had been previously ascertained to contain no drones, and whose queen was removed; and yet the young queen laid eggs.†† In repeating Mr. Schirach's experiment, he shut up four pieces of comb, with one maggot in each; after two days the maggots were all dead, and the bees had desisted from labour.‡‡

A piece of comb, from which all the eggs and maggots had been removed, was shut up with some honey,

* Now he came to know this, I cannot conceive, for nothing *a priori* could give such information.

† Now this account is not only improbable, but it does not tally with itself. First, it is not probable that a handful of bees should, or would, set about making two, three, or four queens, when we do not find that number in a large hive: and secondly, it seems inconsistent that only fifteen should be formed out of twelve parcels, when some of the former parcels had four young queens.

‡ Here is a wonder of another kind: queens laying eggs, which (we must suppose Mr. Schirach meant we should believe) they hatched, without the influence of the male.

§ Why eggs, which we must conceive hatched, and produced maggots, did not form queens, one cannot imagine.

|| In which month, as bees never swarm, there could be no occasion for mothers, or supernumerary queens, and still each experiment produced a handsome queen. This is as singular an observation as any. In this country, and in all similar ones, bees hardly breed after July, and by the beginning of September there is hardly a chrysalis to be seen; yet these bred till November, and even laid eggs.

¶ Why did the bees destroy them in this experiment, and not in others?

** The working bees, from the above experiments, are considered as all females, although the ovaria are too small for examination.

It would appear that a maggot three days old was of the best age for this experiment, yet one should have conceived that a maggot two days old would soon be fit.

†† There is no mystery in this; but did they hatch?

‡‡ This is the most probable event in the whole experiments.

honey, and a certain number of workers; in a short time they became very busy, and upon the evening of the second day 300 eggs were found in the cells.* He repeated this experiment with the same result, and the bees were left to themselves: they placed queen maggots in the queen cells, newly constructed, and others in male cells: the rest were left undisturbed. He again took two pieces of comb, which contained neither eggs nor maggots, and shut them up with a certain number of workers, and carried the box into a stove: next evening, one of the pieces of comb contained several eggs, and the beginning of a royal cell, that was empty.

Besides the short observations contained in the notes, I beg leave to observe, that I have my doubts respecting the whole of these experiments, from several circumstances which occurred in mine: The three following facts appear much against their probability: first, a summer's evening in this country is commonly too cold for so small a parcel of bees to be lively, so as to set about new operations; they get so benumbed, that they hardly recover in the day, and I should suspect that where these experiments were made (and indeed some are said to have been tried in this country), it is also too cold: secondly, if the weather should happen to be so warm as to prevent this effect, then they are so restless, that they commonly destroy themselves, or wear themselves out; at least, after a few days confinement we find them mostly dead: and, thirdly, the account given of the formation of a royal cell, without mentioning the above inconvenience, which is

natural to the experiment, makes me suspect the whole to be fabricated. To obviate the first objection, which I found from experiment to prevent any success that otherwise might arise, I put my parcel of bees, with their comb, in which were eggs, as also maggots, and in some of the trials there were chrysalises,† into a warmer place, such as a glass frame, over tan, the surface of which was covered with mould, to prevent the rising of unwholesome air: but from knowing that the maggot was fed with bee-bread, or farina, I took care to introduce a cell or two with this substance, as also the flowers of plants that produce a great deal of it, likewise some honey for the old ones. In this state my bees were preserved from the cold, as also provided with necessaries; but after being confined several days, upon opening the door of the hive, what were alive came to the door, walked and flew about, but gradually left it, and on examining the combs, &c. I found the maggots dead, and nothing like any operation going on.

The queen, the mother of all, in whatever way produced, is a true female, and different from both the labourers and the male. She is not so large in the trunk as the male, and appears to be rather larger in every part than the labourers. The scales on the under surface of the belly of the labourers are not uniformly of the same colour, over the whole scale; that part being lighter which is overlapped by the terminating scale above, and the uncovered part being darker: this light part does not terminate in a straight line, but in two curves, making a peak;

* This would shew that labourers can be changed into queens at will, and that neither they nor their eggs require to be impregnated; if this was the case, there would be no occasion for all the push in making a queen or a male.

† I chose to have some chrysalises, for I supposed that if my bees died, or flew away, the chrysalises, when they came out, which would happen in a few days, not knowing where to go, might stay and take care of the maggots that might be hatched from the eggs; but, to my surprize, I found that neither the eggs hatched, nor did the chrysalises come forth; all died: from which I began to suspect that the presence of the bees was necessary for both.

peak; all which gives the belly a lighter colour in the labouring bees: more especially when it is pulled out or elongated.

The tongue of the female is considerably shorter than that of the labouring bee, more like that of the male: however, the tongues of the labourers are not in all of an equal length, but none have it so short as the queen.

The size of the belly of the female of such animals varies a little, according to the condition they are in: but the belly of the male and the labourer has but little occasion to change its size, as they are at all times nearly in the same condition with regard to fat, having always plenty of provision: but the true female varies very considerably; she is of a different size and shape in the summer to what she is in the winter; and in the winter she has what may be called her natural size and shape: she is, upon the whole, rather thicker than the labourer; and this thickness is also in the belly, which probably arises from the circumstance of the oviduct being in the winter pretty large, and the reservoir for semen full. The termination of the belly is rather more peaked than in the labourers, the last scale being rather narrower from side to side, and coming more to a point at the anus. The scales at this season are more overlapped, which can only be known by drawing them out. In the spring and summer she is more easily distinguished: the belly is not only thicker, but considerably longer than formerly, which arises from the increase of the eggs. We distinguish a queen from the working bee, simply by size, and in some degree by colour; but this last is not so easily ascertained, because the difference in the colour is not so remarkable in the back; and the only view we can commonly get of her is on this part; but when a hive is killed, the best way is to collect all the bees, and spread them on white paper; or put them into water, in a

broad, flat-bottomed, shallow, white dish, in which they swim; and by looking at them singly, she may be discovered. As the queen breeds the first year she is produced, and the oviducts never entirely subside, an old queen is probably thicker than a new bred one, unless indeed the oviducts, and the eggs, form in the chrysalis state, as in the silkworm, which I should suppose they did. The queen is perhaps at the smallest size just as she has done breeding, for as she is to lay eggs by the month of March, she must begin early to fill again; but I believe her oviducts are never emptied, having at all times eggs in them, although but small. She has fat in her belly, similar to the other bees.

It is most probable that the queen which goes off with the swarm is a young one, for the males go off with the swarm to impregnate her, as she must be impregnated the same year, because she breeds the same year.

The queen has a sting similar to the working bee.

Of the Number of Queens in a Hive.

I believe a hive, or swarm, has but one queen, at least I have never found more than one in a swarm, or in an old hive in the winter; and probably this is what constitutes a hive; for when there are two queens, it is likely that a division may begin to take place. Supernumerary queens are mentioned by Riem, who asserts he has seen them killed by the labourers, as well as the males.

November 18th, 1788, I killed a hive that had not swarmed the summer before, and which was to appearance ready to swarm every day; but when I supposed the season for swarming was over, and it had not swarmed, I began to suspect that the reason why it did not was owing to there being no young queen or queens; and I found only one. This is a kind of presumptive proof that I was right in my conjecture; unless it be supposed, that when they

they were determined not to swarm, they destroyed every queen except one. In a hive that died I found no males, and only one queen.— This circumstance, that so few queens are bred, must arise from the natural security the queen is in from the mode of their society; for, although there is but one queen in a wasp's, hornet's, and humble bee's nest or hive, yet these breed a great number of queens; the wasp and hornet some hundreds; but not living in society during the winter, they are subject to great destruction, so that probably not one in a hundred lives to breed in the summer. I have said that the queen leaves off laying in the month of July; and now she is to be impregnated by the males before they die. Mr. Riem asserts, he has seen the copulation between the male and the female, but does not say at what season. I should doubt this; but Mr. Schirach supposes the queen impregnated without copulation. I know not whether he means by this that she is not impregnated at all, and supposes, like Mr. Debray, that the eggs are impregnated after they are laid, by a set of small drones, who pass over the cells, and thrust their tails down into the cell, so as to besmear the egg.* Mr. Bonnet does

not consider it necessary that the drones should be small for this purpose, for he saw a large drone passing over the cells of a piece of comb, stopping at every one which contained an egg, but at no other, and giving a knock with his tail on the mouth of the cell three times; this he supposed was the mode of impregnating the eggs. The number three has always been a famous number; but it will not do where there are no males, which is the case of a hive in the spring, the time when the queen is most employed in laying eggs; which made him suppose the use of the males was to feed the maggots with their semen. It is probable that the copulation is like that of most other insects. The copulation of the humble bee I have seen: it is similar to the common fly. The sting is extended at the time, and turned up on the back, between the two animals: they are some time in this act. In the hornet it is the same. The circumstances relative to the impregnating the queen not being known, great room has been given for conjecture, which, if authors had presented as conjectures only, it would have shewn their candour; but they have given, what in them were probably conceits, as facts, [To be continued.]

GALLERY OF PORTRAITS.

NUMBER IV.

M. NECKER, distinguished under the
Title of NARSES.

NARSES is the victim of his own ambition, and the martyr of his own success. He is the jest of the courtiers, and the idol of the mob. He has neither country nor friends, neither a series of political principles nor a knowledge of mankind. He seeks applause, and does not think of securing esteem. He understands neither the present nor

the future. With just so much intellectual force as goads him to aspire after the first offices of the state, he is totally destitute of the talents that should give them utility and fame.

His childhood was too rude and uncultivated to promise any brilliant success. His education was that of a book-keeper, and his earliest ambition was to be rich. Repulsed by the sex, favoured by circum-

* Mr. Debray, knowing the drones died in the latter end of summer, or the autumn, was obliged to suppose a small set of males, that lived through the winter, for that purpose.

stances, smiled on by fortune, he amassed an opulent estate. Uncouth in his person, awkward in his manners, obscure in his birth, esteemed by no man, liked by no woman, he trusted he should find in the ostentation of wealth an equivalent for every other enjoyment.

There is an austerity of manners, that is easily grafted upon an ungracious character. Every man has his plan. He, who cannot gain your kindness, is willing to secure your respect; he aims at the esteem that is paid like a debt, and the good name that is taken by force. Narfes fixed upon prudence as the engine of his success; and this virtue, ordinarily so sterile, became in his hands the means of promotion.

Raised to an elevated situation,* he carefully exhibited the charm of disinterestedness. The success of this quality is infallible. He threw dust in the eyes of the nation, and then persuaded them to put themselves under his guidance. Those who brought their money to the treasury he amply rewarded; and then taught the people to suppose, that the abundance, which flowed from the interested views of the lenders, was a tribute to the rectitude and energy of his character.

In France the great are seldom or never contradicted, the fair are secure of their empire, the dependents of office have their allotted share of patronage, a polite address is sure of succeeding, importunity extorts what neither judgment nor favour are disposed to bestow. In such a kingdom it was new to see a man, who resisted solicitation, and who loved something else better than flattery.

It was still more extraordinary to see a man, that was deaf to insinuation, shew a puerile sensibility to the lampoons of a nation, gay but not severe; to see him sloop

from all his philosophy, to pine under the anguish of the good humoured jests of the frolic and the idle, who thus became, without knowing their importance, the ministers of vengeance for all the hapless victims, that bled beneath the knife of Narfes's œconomy.

At length he meditated the conversion of the infidels, that resisted his empire, and did not yield to the stream of general delusion. He determined to exhibit his uncommon talents in the face of day, and to unveil to an admiring nation the causes of a felicity, which was forever talked of, but never felt. But this legend of miracles† made some men laugh, offended others, imposed upon a few, and was displeasing to all. Mankind are not willing, that we should ravish their applauses, and impose it upon them as a tax, that they should give us their good word.

This great dramatical stroke hastened the tragedy to a painful conclusion. To go out of place was nothing; but to retire, stunned with applause, yet forbidden to remain spectator of the delicious scene; to find the people easy to catch the flame, but still more easy to console themselves for its absence, this was doubly cruel. He fled to his solitary retreat,‡ hoping to see the nation undertake a pilgrimage in crowds to the shrine of their ex-divinity.

Here and there a solitary votary made his appearance. To rekindle their expiring zeal a voluminous performance was at length composed, § in which the secrets of the government of France were published to the world. An introduction, abounding in phrases of self-applause, and insolently upbraiding a people, who had laid its author under the greatest obligations, addressed itself to the imagination of the

* Director-general of the finances.

† Compte Rendu au Roi, January 1781.

‡ In May 1781.

§ On the administration of the finances of France, published in January 1785.

the public, and gave them fortitude slowly to digest the tediousness of three mortal volumes.

The book was severely criticised; the author flew to Paris to defend it; he flattered himself that he had obtained the honour to be persecuted. The thread of a secret intrigue was attached to the book, and the vehement apologists of Narfes conceived the bold design of conjuring once more into political life the departed statesman.

In his crafty hiding-place he was rehearsing the character of a martyr, when a political rival * was imprudent enough to engage him in a personal dispute. Immediately the numerous enemies of the former went over to the side of the latter, who gathered in greater abundance the fruits of his cynical austerity, without however re-ascending the eminence he had lost. Fortune placed in the chair of finance a minister, who, with the specious appearance of ability, was absolutely incapable of the rank he obtained.† The exchequer grew empty, public credit diminished, the people, irritated with the instability and the poverty of government, were heard to threaten, the storm grew blacker, imperious necessity produced an extraordinary combination of events. Authority, harrassed with the difficulties of the moment, recalled to the helm of affairs the minister, whom the voice of the public demanded;‡—recalled him, less from any considerations personal to himself, than to rid itself at once of both its embarrassments, unpopularity and the dread of becoming bankrupt.

Prodigies were now expected. The financier expected to find a new order of things, the creditors of the state regularity and system, commerce a friend, the nation uniformity, fidelity and vigour.

Men of letters demanded profound views from a member of their own fraternity; the friends of liberty, a free constitution under the auspices of a republican; men of business, the revival of credit from the projects of a speculating banker; the clergy, a reinforcement to the support of morality from the author of the Influence of Religious Opinions;§ the king, a short period of tranquillity, a few days of peace, to which his royal honesty so well entitled him, from a minister, so greatly extolled, so assiduously recalled to his memory. How many hopes have been deceived at once! And how has this happened? It is, that, in the short space of three years, the nation has become acquainted with its rights. Scarcely had it exerted its first effort to give them existence, than the minister, astonished and embarrassed, shrunk into himself. Every event alarmed him. Men pointed out to him the interval he had to pass, in order to attain the object which the nature of things demanded; and he was conscious to one honest moment of diffidence and apprehension. But ambition roused him from his supineness. Urged by the incessant goadings of vanity and intrigue, he seized upon the occasion, as affording him an opportunity to shine, Persuading himself that he led in the van of public opinion, he yielded to the universal cry for a national assembly.

No sooner had he entered into this great engagement with the public, than, tormented on one side with an anxiety to lead, and on the other apprehensive that the machine of an assembled nation would be too mighty for his grasp, he became terrified at the scene, of which he had lifted the curtain. From that moment every step he took became a blunder.

AN

* Mr. de Calonne, 1787.
translated to Sens.

§ Published in the year 1787.

† Mr. de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, since
‡ 25 August, 1788.

An assembly of notables,* to which one order of proceedings is prescribed by the minister, and another adopted by themselves. Narfes inspires neither confidence nor respect, neither the voluntary subjection of esteem, nor the irresistible one that we pay to beings of a superior order.

Regulation of elections, almost every where rejected. System and balance of privileges, obscure, indecisive, irresolute and hypocritical. Artificial procrastination and delay. All these are the resources of intrigue, not the emanations of genius.

Discourse at the opening of the states general,† discovering at every turn a mind intoxicated with vanity, displaying an incapacity or an unwillingness to explain and illustrate: a composition, indecent, unmanly, out of place, betraying a narrow understanding and a timorous heart.

Conferences,‡ in which they rather stammer than discuss, in which they rather grope than proceed, in which that fearfulness appears in all its deformity, that springs from a consciousness, that the man is unequal to his situation, that he is arrived at the limit, when he must either suggest one of those grand expedients that reconcile the fluctuating opinions of mankind, or confess at once his imbecility and nothingness.

Behold then the great secret revealed, that for ten years was so successfully concealed from a misguided nation! Narfes is now discovered to have no digested plan, to want the mind that should conceive one, to have neither skill to borrow the ideas of others, nor friends to correct his errors, and prompt him how to discharge a task, that a vulgar mortal should never have undertaken.

Narfes would give all his fortune, and half the remaining years

of his life, to save France from the misfortunes in which he has involved it. No indirect view has misled him; his integrity is spotless; his intentions of the purest kind. But he has consulted only his ambition, and never examined his capacity. He persuaded himself, that the desire of doing well, and a few scattered remnants of preparation, would make him equal to the necessities of the public. He has been willing not only to do every thing, but to do it unassisted. When he entered upon administration, the other satraps of government were no longer thought of; alone he fixed the regards of men, alone he was the center of their hopes.

During the first months of his reign a kind of justice to his character imposed silence. "Give him time to exert himself," exclaimed his partisans. The states-general once announced, every thing was deferred to the era of regeneration. All that was necessary, was to gain that period without eclat, without a total suspension of the faculties of government. The period arrives. We see nothing of the genius of a statesman; we see the tricks of a juggler, who now appears and now hides himself. He has not courage to embrace the party of the people; he is afraid to have his overtures repulsed by that of the noblesse. He flatters himself, that he shall find in the mediating clergy, a party, that will moderate the effervescence of the other two, and counteract their dangerous excesses.

It is then past a dispute, that Narfes is not the man we took him for. But though he is not all we could desire, may it not be better to maintain him in his situation, than to incur the risk of a change? This is the question we proceed to discuss.

Narfes has the people on his side.

He

* 6 November, 1788.

† 5 May, 1788.

‡ From 30 May to 16 June, intended to reconcile the jarring pretensions of the nobility and the commons.

He is economical, the friend of order, and an excellent arithmetician. The pride, which devours him, supplies the place of a public spirit that he can never possess. His personal credit may be serviceable to the empty exchequer in a moment of distress. Foreign nations imagine that he is a statesman, and think France happy to have her finances in the direction of a man, so pure, so active. His inflexibility is happily formed to encounter the obstinacy of money-lenders, the indiscretions of government, the avidity of courtiers, the importunate solicitations of the fair sex. If the nation be resolved to fill up all the deficiencies that ignorance and dissipation have made, may she not derive considerable utility from a man, skilled in the mechanism of collection, and the science of financial versatility? This is without doubt all that the most enthusiastic admirer could alledge in favour of Narfes.

His antagonists will reply: if Narfes would confine himself to these employments, no doubt it would be right to keep him. But, if he have always the ambitious itch of going out of his sphere, it then becomes us to consider, not what he might do, but what he does. Can we conceal, that he foments divisions among the different orders, not by irritating them one against the other, but by inducing them to hope that the royal authority will declare itself in favour of the party to which he shall promise it. If administration only were to be considered, perhaps his advice is as good as that of another; but we desire a constitution. Now, if we examine his principles, if we conclude either from his silence, or from what he has said, Narfes cannot be admitted to the formation of a constitution.

His principles are borrowed from the school of the most perfect despotism. We have seen them

developed and brought before the public by himself.

In his discourse at the opening of the national assembly, he does not say a word about the constitution. The affectation of calling the attention of the representatives to the finances only, could not have been the result of mere awkwardness.

His conduct in the single business of the election for Paris, proves, that he never aimed at that union, which can be the only source of constitutional regulations.

Is it not nearly the greatest of all possible inconveniences, to fluctuate for ever in indecision and doubt? Has he a system carefully concealed beneath the veil of his mysterious prudence, or does he hide nothing under these artificial appearances, but mere inanity? What does he intend? Will he furnish arms to the aristocracy? Will he favour the demagogues? Does he want to be king? Is he desirous to preserve the power of his master? Is he anxious that the laws should be omnipotent? Every thing is probable; nothing can be demonstrated. If it be necessary to resume once more the reins inconsiderately bestowed, foreign nations will exclaim: "Thoughtless Frenchmen! you have intrusted your happiness to a stranger, from whom you had no pledge either of fidelity or talents. You have tried a Mazarine and a Law, and in defiance of experience you have given once more into the same snare. Expect to feel the effects of it!" What could we answer to such an apostrophe?

To complete a demonstration so long resisted, let us in the last place enquire, what is a minister? and let us impartially compare the picture and the reality.

What ought to be the qualifications of a minister in one of the great courts of Europe? He should be a man, whose temper nothing

can intimidate, and yet not too ready to adopt any of those vast projects, with the conception of which the imagination is delighted, but which ought not to be executed but after the maturest deliberation. He should be animated with the desire of gloriously filling his career, and yet not too hasty in fixing upon its characteristic features. He should be tenderly attached to his country, and yet not a slave to the silly prejudice, which represents it as the exclusive asylum of capacity and talents. What an assiduous cultivation ought to have improved this rich and genial soil? The knowledge of men that is to be derived from history, combined with what passes immediately under our eyes. That observation of things which depends upon personal inspection, and that comparison of interests to which genius only is adequate. An intimate acquaintance with that department of history, which exhibits treaties, concluded, altered, rejected; which includes projects, abandoned, resumed, well and ill executed, enforced with vigour, or proscribed with violence. How many talents are necessary to enable a man to appear with advantage, and to gain the confidence of the persons to whom he addresses himself? A clear and perspicuous style, accurate and distinct ideas, great command of language, great strength of character, seducing manners, the mastery of the passions, rapidity of execution, coolness in the midst of tumult, a solid judgment, a never-failing penetration, the art of concealing all these advantages, and the ability of discovering enough of them to overawe and subdue the understandings of mankind. All these gifts are nothing without the talent of employing them. To maintain the dignity of your master, without engaging in unnecessary wars; to guard against the weakness of temporising, that doubles

our calamities, while it delays the application of a remedy; to guard with still more jealousy against that precipitation, which the vulgar, fond of a busy scene, mistake for the rapidity of genius; to watch over the movement of foreign courts, without having recourse to the base instrumentality of spies; to penetrate in a period of tranquillity into the arsenals of an enemy; to prepare at a distance the means of defence; to regard the best constructed treaty as only a suspension of arms:—in the very tempest and whirlwind of affairs, to call to your assistance that firmness, which surmounts a thousand obstacles; that felicity of resource, which defeats the most pertinacious opposition; ambition; a courage, that holds calamity in contempt; a skill, that improves victory, that foresees surprises, that repairs misfortunes, that encounters success with success, that bears up against temporary miscarriage; a skill, still more uncommon, to secure the esteem of Europe, to become the dread of your rivals and the dependence of your friends; an art, almost more than human, to make the lustre of your own talents reflect back on your master, and to persuade your neighbours that the advantages you possess result from the combination of talents that exists in your country. To this assemblage of qualifications, that is almost visionary, it is necessary to add, decent and respectable manners; a disinterestedness, so pure, that it is acknowledged by your very enemies; an indifference for the eclat of the moment in comparison of the suffrage of posterity; a love of labour, of order and of virtue; that simplicity, which is the characteristic trait of a great man; in fine, that philosophical contempt for unjust censure, which can never exist till you have first attained a possession very easy in appearance, incomparably difficult in reality, the esteem of yourself.

ESSAY ON THE CHARACTER OF DR. JOHNSON.

BY ARTHUR MURPHY, ESQ.

[Continued from Page 127.]

THE following lines of Horace may be deemed his picture in miniature:

*Iracundior est paulo, minus aptus acutis
Naribus horum hominum, rideri possit, eo
quod*

*Rusticius tonso toga defuit, & male latus
In pede calceus hæret; at est bonus, ut
melior vir*

*Non alius quisquam; at tibi amicus, at
ingénium ingens,
Inculto latet hoc sub corpore.*

Your friend is passionate, perhaps unfit
For the brisk petulance of modern wit.

His hair ill cut, his robe that aukward
flows,

Or his large shoes, to raillery expose
The man you love; yet is he not possess'd
Of virtues, with which very few are blest?
While underneath this rude uncouth disguise

A genius of extensive knowledge lies.

Francis's Hor. Book i. Sat. 3.

It remains to give a review of Johnson's works; and this, it is imagined, will not be unwelcome to the reader.

Like Milton and Addison, he seems to have been fond of his Latin poetry. Those compositions shew that he was an early scholar; but his verses have not the graceful ease that gave so much suavity to the poems of Addison. The translation of the Messiah labours under two disadvantages; it is first to be compared with Pope's inimitable performance, and afterwards with the Pollio of Virgil. It may appear trifling to remark, that he has made the letter *o*, in the word *Virgo*, long and short in the same line: *Virgo, Virgo, parit*. But the translation has great merit, and some admirable lines. In the odes there is a sweet flexibility, particularly, to his worthy friend Dr. Laurence; on himself at the theatre, March 8, 1771; the ode in the isle of Sky; and that to Mrs. Thrale from the same place.

His English poetry is such as leaves room to think, if he had devoted himself to the Muses, that he would have been the rival of Pope. His first production in this kind was London, a poem in imitation of the third satire of Juvenal. The vices of the metropolis are placed in the room of ancient manners. The author had heated his mind with the ardour of Juvenal, and, having the skill to polish his numbers, he became a sharp accuser of the times. The Vanity of Human Wishes is an imitation of the tenth satire of the same author. Though it is translated by Dryden, Johnson's imitation approaches nearest to the spirit of the original. The subject is taken from the Alcibiades of Plato, and has an intermixture of the sentiments of Socrates concerning the object of prayers offered up to the deity. The general proposition is, that good and evil are so little understood by mankind, that their wishes when granted are always destructive. This is exemplified in a variety of instances, such as riches, state-preferment, eloquence, military glory, long life, and the advantages of form and beauty. Juvenal's conclusion is worthy of a Christian poet, and such a pen as Johnson's. "Let us," he says, "leave it to the Gods to judge what is fittest for us. Man is dearer to his Creator than to himself. If we must pray for special favour, let it be for a sound mind in a sound body. Let us pray for fortitude, that we may think the labours of Hercules and all his sufferings, preferable to a life of luxury and the soft repose of Saradanapalus. This is a blessing within the reach of every man; this we can give ourselves. It is virtue, and virtue only, that can make

"make us happy." In the translation the zeal of the Christian conspired with the warmth and energy of the poet; but Juvenal is not eclipsed. For the various characters in the original the reader is pleased, in the English poem, to meet with Cardinal Wolsey, Buckingham stabbed by Felton, Lord Strafford, Clarendon, Charles XII. of Sweden; and for Tully and Demosthenes, Lydiat, Galileo, and Archbishop Laud. It is owing to Johnson's delight in biography that the name of Lydiat is called forth from obscurity. It may, therefore, not be useless to tell, that Lydiat was a learned divine and mathematician in the beginning of the last century. He attacked the doctrine of Aristotle and Scaliger, and wrote a number of sermons on the harmony of the Evangelists. With all his merit, he lay in the prison of Bocardo at Oxford, till Bishop Usher, Laud, and others, paid his debts. He petitioned Charles I. to be sent to Ethiopia to procure manuscripts. Having spoken in favour of monarchy and bishops, he was plundered by the Puritans, and twice carried away a prisoner from his rectory. He died very poor in 1646.

The tragedy of Irene is founded on a passage in Knolles's History of the Turks; an author highly commended in the Rambler, No. 122. An incident in the Life of Mahomet the Great, first emperor of the Turks, is the hinge on which the fable is made to move. The substance of the story is shortly this. In 1453 Mahomet laid siege to Constantinople, and having reduced the place, became enamoured of a fair Greek, whose name was Irene. The sultan invited her to embrace the law of the prophet, and to grace his throne. Enraged at this intended marriage, the Janizaries formed a conspiracy to dethrone the emperor. To avert the impending danger, Mahomet, in a full assembly of the grandees,

"Catching with one hand," as Knolles relates it, "the fair Greek by the hair of her head, and drawing his falchion with the other, he, at one blow, struck off her head, to the great terror of them all; and, having so done, said to them, now, by this, judge whether your emperor is able to bridle his affections or not." The story is simple, and it remained for the author to amplify it with proper episodes, and give it complication and variety. The catastrophe is changed, and horror gives place to terror and pity. But, after all, the fable is cold and languid. There is not, throughout the piece, a single situation to excite curiosity, and raise a conflict of passions. The diction is nervous, rich, and elegant; but splendid language, and melodious numbers, will make a fine poem, not a tragedy. The sentiments are beautiful, always happily expressed, but seldom appropriated to the character, and generally too philosophic. What Johnson has said of the tragedy of Cato may be applied to Irene: "It is rather a poem in dialogue than a drama; rather a succession of just sentiments in elegant language, than a representation of natural affections. Nothing excites or assuages emotion. The events are expected without solicitude, and are remembered without joy or sorrow. Of the agents we have no care; we consider not what they are doing, nor what they are suffering; we wish only to know what they have to say. It is un-affecting elegance, and chill philosophy." The following speech, in the mouth of a Turk, who is supposed to have heard of the British constitution, has been often selected from the numberless beauties with which Irene abounds:

"If there be any land, as some reports,
Where common laws restrain the prince
and subject;
A happy land, where circulating power
Flows through each member of the em-
bedded state;

Sure

Sure not unconscious of the mighty blessing,
 Her grateful sons shine bright with ev'ry virtue;
 Untainted with the lust of innovation;
 Sure all unite to hold her league of rule,
 Unbroken as the sacred chain of nature,
 That links the jarring elements in peace."

These are the British sentiments. Above forty years ago they found an echo in the breast of applauding audiences, and, to this hour they are the voice of the people, in defiance of the metaphysics and the new lights of certain politicians, who would gladly find their private advantage in the disasters of their country; a race of men, *quibus nulla ex honesto spes*.

The prologue to Irene is written with elegance, and, in a peculiar strain, shews the literary pride and lofty spirit of the author. The epilogue, we are told in a late publication, was written by Sir William Young. This is a new discovery, but by no means probable. When the appendages to a dramatic performance are not assigned to a friend, or an unknown hand, or a person of fashion, they are always supposed to be written by the author of the play. It is to be wished, however, that the epilogue in question could be transferred to any other writer. It is the worst *Jeu d'Esprit* that ever fell from Johnson's pen.

An account of the various pieces contained in this edition, such as miscellaneous tracts, and philological dissertations, would lead beyond the intended limits of this essay. It will suffice to say, that they are the productions of a man who never wanted decorations of language, and always taught his reader to think. The life of the late king of Prussia, as far as it extends, is a model of the biographical style.

The Review of the Origin of Evil was, perhaps, written with asperity; but the angry epitaph, which it provoked from Soame Jenyns, was an ill-timed resentment,

unworthy of the genius of that amiable author.

The Rambler may be considered as Johnson's great work. It was the basis of that high reputation which went on increasing to the end of his days. The circulation of those periodical essays was not, at first equal to their merit. They had not, like the Spectators, the art of charming by variety; and indeed how could it be expected? The wits of queen Anne's reign sent their contributions to the Spectator; and Johnson stood alone. A stage-coach, says Sir Richard Steele, must go forward on stated days, whether there are passengers or not. So it was with the Rambler, every Tuesday and Saturday, for two years. In this collection Johnson is the great moral teacher of his countrymen; his essays form a body of ethics; the observations on life and manners are acute and instructive; and the papers, professedly critical, serve to promote the cause of literature. It must, however, be acknowledged, that a settled gloom hangs over the author's mind; and all the essays, except eight or ten, coming from the same fountain-head, no wonder that they have the raciness of the soil from which they sprung. Of this uniformity Johnson was sensible. He used to say, that if he had joined a friend or two, who would have been able to intermix papers of a sprightly turn, the collection would have been more miscellaneous, and, by consequence, more agreeable to the generality of readers. This he used to illustrate by repeating two beautiful stanzas from his own Ode to Cave, or Sylvanus Urban:

Non ulla Musis pagina gratior,
 Quam quæ severis ludicra jungere
 Novit, fatigatamque nugis
 Utilibus recreare mentem.
 Texente nymphis ferta Lycoride,
 Rosæ rubore, sic viola adjuvat
 Immista, sic Iris refulget
 Æthereis variata fucis.

[To be continued.]

CUSTOMS OF THE MODERN PERSIANS.

BY WILLIAM FRANCKLIN,

Ensign on the Hon. Company's Bengal Establishment.

AS the religion of the Persians is known to be Mahomedan, and as very good accounts have already been given of it, I shall touch but lightly on the subject; but as they are of the sect of the Sheiàs, or followers of Ali, some of their customs, as well religious as civil, may probably differ from those of the Turks, who are of the sect of the Sunnies, or followers of Omar. I shall therefore make a few remarks on what I think most worthy of observation in each of them: and first respecting their marriages.

When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out amongst their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; in which having succeeded, the father or mother of the young man, or sometimes his sister, assemble a company of their friends, and go to the house where the person they intend to demand lives: being arrived, a conversation takes place, in which the business is opened, and the match proposed. If the father of the woman is contented with the proposals, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct sign of compliance; and the company for that time take leave. Some days after, the females of the family of the man assemble at the house of the intended bride, where the terms of marriage are settled, and the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are promised. These, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money of about ten or twelve tomans, which sum is denominated Mehr u Kawèen, or the marriage-portion, it being given for the express purpose of providing

for the wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. After this a writing or contract is drawn up, in the presence of, and witnessed by, the Cadi, or magistrate, or in his absence by an Akhund, or priest: this writing the Persians call Akud Bundeè, or the binding contract, in which the father of the bride sets forth, that on such a day, in such a year, he has given his daughter in marriage to the son of such a person (mentioning the name of the bridegroom and his father), who also on his part enumerates the different presents he makes in his son's name to the bride, as well as the stipulated money called Mehr u Kawèen. This writing is signed and sealed by both parties, as well as the Cadi and the Mullah, and is deposited in the hands of the bride's father, where it always serves as a record, in case of a divorce, to enforce the fulfilling of the marriage-articles: for on this occasion the husband is obliged to make good the contract, even to the minutest agreement, before the divorce can be complete. When this ceremony is finished, the marriage by the Mahomedan law is deemed perfect. It is, however, observable, that portions are never given with daughters in Persia, as is the custom in Europe, and in most places of the east. Nothing now remains but to celebrate the wedding, and this is generally performed the second or third day after signing the contract, in the following manner: the night before the wedding, the friends and relations of the bride assemble at her house, attended by music, dancing girls, and other signs of festivity. This night is distinguished by the appellation of Sheb Hinna Bundeè,

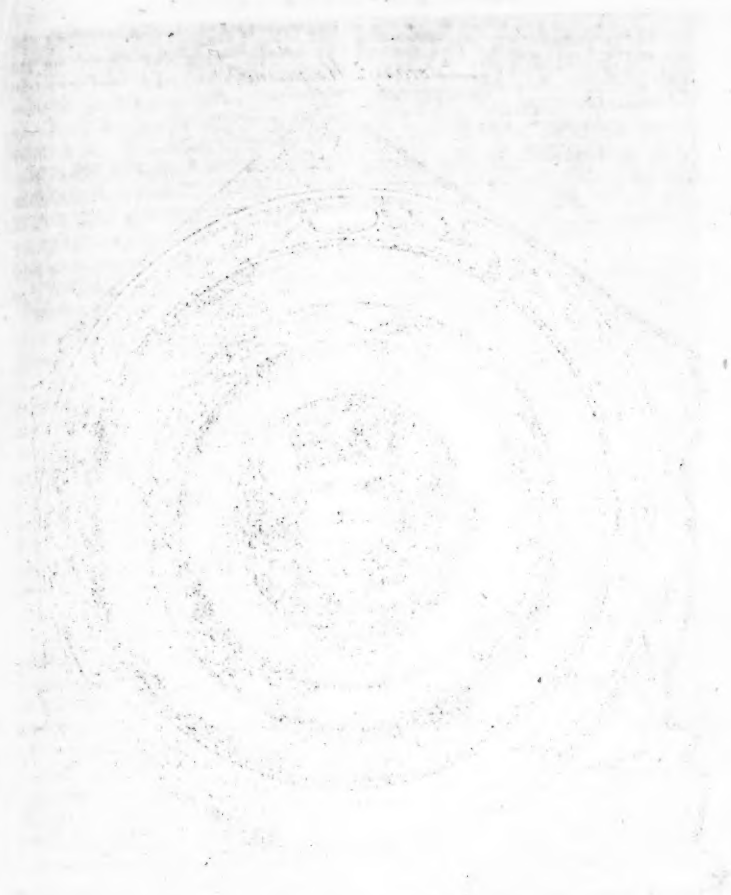
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or the night in which the hands and feet of the bride are stained with the herb of *Hinna*, well known all over the east. Previous to the ceremony, a large quantity of this herb is sent by the bridegroom to the house of the bride; and on the day of staining she is first conveyed to the bath, where having bathed, she is brought back to her own house; after which they stain her hands and feet, at the same time painting her eyebrows and forehead with the antimony powder called *Surma*: when this is finished, they send back what remains of the herb to the house of the bridegroom, where the like operation is performed upon him by his friends. The wedding night being come, the friends both of the bride and bridegroom, men and women, assemble at the house of the bride, in order to carry her to that of her future husband: they are attended by all sorts of music, singers, and dancing girls, and all are dressed in their smartest apparel, each of the women having on a veil of red silk. The presents which the bridegroom has made, are all put into trays covered with red silk, which are carried on men's shoulders. After waiting at the door some time, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent thither expressly by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into a glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order:—first, the music and dancing girls; after which the presents, in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting and making a great noise; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all

her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle; and several others on horse-back close the procession. Being arrived at the house of the bridegroom, they are met at the door by the father and mother, and from thence are conducted up stairs: the bride then enters the room. The bridegroom, who is at the upper end, makes a low obeisance; and presently after, coming close up to his bride, takes her up in his arms, and embraces her. Soon after they retire into a private chamber; and, on their return to the company, it causes great rejoicings. They then all sit down to supper in separate apartments, the men eating with the bridegroom in one room, and the women with the bride in another; it being quite contrary to custom for the women to eat in company with the men on this occasion. The wedding-supper is prolonged to a late hour in the night, with cheerfulness and festive mirth.

Rejoicings in Persia for a wedding generally continue eight or ten days. If, after marriage, a man should be discontented with his wife (which is sometimes the case in this as in other countries), he is at liberty to divorce her; a man, by the Mahomedan law, being always enabled to put his wife away at discretion: this is performed by giving her every thing he had promised previous to marriage, and by re-demanding the contract of his wife's relations. The ceremony of divorce is called by the Persians *Tellaak*. If again, after the divorce, the husband should be inclined to take his wife back, he is at liberty so to do, and this for three times successively; and when it so happens, the contract must be renewed each time: but after the third time he is expressly forbidden to re-marry the same woman. I have heard a story of the woman's being obliged first to be married, then bedded, and afterwards divorced by another man, before her first husband can re-marry her; but I never could

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ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED

Literary Magazine.



The Tympanum of a Roman Temple.

Published as the Act directs, 1 April 1793, for the Proprietors, by J. Good, Bond Street.

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could meet with an instance of it in Persia, or ever knew of any custom of that kind prevalent in the country, although I made frequent enquiries concerning it. It seldom happens that a man, who is once divorced from his wife, is inclined to take her back again; those who do so being in little estimation with their neighbours, and with respect to the number of wives a man has, although by the Mahomedan law he is certainly allowed as many as he is able to maintain, yet in general, amongst the Persians, that person is most esteemed who attaches himself to one.

Contracts of marriage in Persia, as well as in many other places in the

east, are often made between families at a very early period; and although consummation does not take place till many years after, yet the woman contracted cannot divorce herself, or be absolved from the contract, unless by the consent of her betrothed husband, except on forfeiture of a considerable sum of money. The same is also binding on the part of the man.

A widow in Persia is obliged to wait four months after the death of her husband before she is permitted by law to marry again; but the concubine of a person deceased may go to another as soon as she pleases.

[*To be continued.*]

ACCOUNT OF ANTIQUITIES DISCOVERED AT BATH, 1796.

BY SIR CHARLES ENGLEFIELD, BART.

WITH A VIEW OF THE TYMPANUM OF A ROMAN TEMPLE.

THESE remains were brought to light by digging the foundation of a new pump-room and baths between the old pump-room and Stall-street. The ground consisted almost entirely of the fragments of ruined buildings, and amongst these some ornamented stones, now preserved for the inspection of the curious. They are in number about fifty or sixty, and consist of an ornamented cornice, a Corinthian capital, several pieces of the shaft of a column or columns of a diameter answering the capital, pieces of pilasters, and almost the whole tympanum of the pediment, adorned with sculpture.

Part of an inscription, which probably ran across the front wall of the building, on which was ENNAVETVSTA in very sharp well formed letters; and a base, an altar with an inscription, and several fragments of skulls of different animals, with parts of horns and earth mixed with ashes, were also found.

Twelve feet below the level of the present street was a pavement of large stones, which probably be-

longed to a temple of the Corinthian order, dedicated to the deities which presided over the springs of Bath, and which, by an altar formerly dug up here, tells us were Apollo and Minerva.

The parts of this building do not exhibit the elegance of the best Roman times. The Plate exhibits, on a scale of three quarters of an inch to a foot, the central ornament of the tympanum of the temple, every part of which was measured on the spot, and all the ornaments faithfully drawn there, except the head in the center, into the eyes of which, I fear, I have put a degree of expression which the original wants. The disposition of the beard, which is the most curious part of the head, I can however answer for. It has been carved on four stones, whose joints are faintly marked in the drawing. The top stone (from which the verticle angle of the pediment was taken) is not quite so entire as here represented. The center stone has the outward circle broken off it on the left hand of the drawing, and the bottom stone to the

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right is wanting. I thought it however better to give the general effect of the whole than mutilate the drawing, in which nothing appears without authority. The ornament itself admits of many conjectures. Some have thought it the *Ægis* of *Minerva*, but the *Gorgon's* head in that shield is I believe invariably female. A gentleman whose knowledge in antiquity is unrivalled, called it a *patera* with the head of the sun in the center; and informed me, that on many medals of temples a large *patera* of this sort fills the tympanum. The head of the sun, or rather of the great creating and destroying power, is often found with the serpents and wings, and the beard.

The *patera* was supported on the right hand by a female figure, whose left hand still appears on the rim, and the right arm, with a bracelet on the wrist, remains above. The head and body of this figure is quite lost; but the legs remain on another stone, and shew that the figure was in a flying posture, with one foot touching a celestial sphere. Near this there remains a very small part of a *Triton*, or figure ending in a fish.

The *patera* being defaced on the left side, it is not certain that a flying figure supported it on that side; but besides the probability from symmetry, a part of a female figure remains, which evidently was in the same position as the other, and looks towards it.

The helmet on the lower stone never has had any thing near it, but appears as a single ornament rather

oddly placed, as does the owl on the right hand. The little star above the *patera* appears very commonly among the solar emblems. The wreaths of foliage round the *patera* seem both of them to be oak, as the acorns are in both very distinctly marked. The form of the leaves, however, in the outer circle approaches much nearer to the olive, being long, narrow, and slightly indented. The execution of the whole is very indifferent; but the head is as bad as possible, flat, hard, and without taste or expression.

The bases and part of the shafts of some smaller columns were also discovered. The diameter of these was fifteen inches, and they were not fluted. A stone also was dug up, which seemed to have formed the verticle angle of a smaller pediment, and which was of a pitch rather lower than that of the temple, but not much: on it was carved, in very high relief, an head ornamented, with the hair brought forward from behind, and tied in a very large knot on the top of the head. This head and shoulders issue out of a crescent. On the same stone is a fragment of sculpture, which appears like a whip with a long lash of thong. How far this may be supposed to relate to *Diana*, I will not pretend to determine. It is equally impossible to say whether these columns might have formed part of the interior decoration of the temple, or might have been a *facellum* adjoining to, and dependent on, the principal edifice. Such chapels appear in the court of the temple of *Isis* at *Pompeii*.

HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF ENGLISH MONEY.

[Continued from Page 107.]

CHARLES I. This king, as appears by an account from the officers of the mint, coined of silver money (besides a considerable quantity of gold) no less than 8,776,544*l.* 10*s.* 3*d.* Nevertheless the only in-

denture I find for coinage of money in Lowndes's essay, is in the second year of his reign, whereby a pound weight of gold of the old standard was coined into 44*l.* 10*s.* by tale, viz. rose ryals at 30*s.* spur ryals at

15s. angels 10s. and a pound weight of crown gold 22 carraets fine, and two carraets alloy into 41*l*. by tale, to wit, into unites at 20s. double crowns at 10s. or British crowns at 5s. And all the silver by the old standard into sixty-two shillings by tale; namely into crowns, half crowns, shillings, half-shillings, twopences, pence, and half-pence. But though there is no mention of any indenture till the second year, there was a great deal of money coined in his first year, both gold and silver; all which exhibit his head with the ruff, and besides the aforementioned species, groats, threepences, and other various kinds of money, which the distraction of the latter part of his reign produced.

The crown-piece has the king on horseback, with his sword in his hand, CAROLVS. D. G. MAG. BRITA. FRAN. ET. HIBER. REX. Reverse, between C. R. the arms in an oval shield crowned (this being the first of our kings that bore the arms in that fashioned shield, which was imitated by his son) CHRISTO. AVSPICE. REGNO. There is a crown-piece, supposed to be coined at the siege of Dublin 1641, without any inscription, having on one side a plain cross, on the other v with s above it. The half crowns are various; some with the arms in an oval shield, some in a square shield: one has the rose and crown upon the trappings, and feathers upon the horse's head; another of that mint has EBOR. under the horse. One with OX of Oxford mint, a barbarous one, has reverse EXVRGAT. DEVS. DISSIPENTUR. INIMICI. and in the field RELIG. PRO. LE. AN. LI. PA. 1643. These are of several mint-marks, with a lion passant, anchor, harp, fleur-de-lis, lion-passant gardant. There is also mention of certain half crowns, coined in the west, containing the sovereign's arms, within the garter, and crowned; which was the first money whereon the royal garter appeared, &c. besides the Newark half crown, in form of a lozenge

C. R. on each side a crown, and xxx below. Reverse, OBS. NEWARK. 1646. and the Pontefract in like form, C. R. crowned, DUM. SPIRO. SPERO. Reverse the famous castle, and hand out of one of the towers, holding a drawn sword, OBS. P. C. 1648. There is likewise a three shilling-piece at the siege of Carlisle, C. R. crowned, III. below. Reverse, OBS. CARL. 1645, and plate money, being part of a silver plate, with the rim upon it; under the figure of the castle (perhaps that of Scarborough) 11s. 11*l*d. being its weight. Another of an irregular form, with a different castle 1s. 11*l*d.

The shillings are likewise in great variety, those of the first year, which are not common, have the king's head crowned, with the ruff, and XII. behind the head. Reverse the arms, and CHRISTO. AVSPICE. REGNO. a cross, the mint mark, another with CR. above the arms in an oval, has a rose, a third a fleur-de-lis, the shilling with the falling band that succeeded the cumbersome ruff, mint mark a scepter, a very fair one 1637, and ARCHETYPUS. MONETÆ. ARGENTÆ. ANGLIÆ. one with EBOR. another with the inscription on the reverse, RELIG. PRO. LEG. ANG. LIBER. PAR. the shilling of Oxford mint with OX. and of the Welsh mines with the feathers. Others the bell and rose the mint marks, have the arms in a round shield garnished, without the crown, which all the former have; likewise the Pontefract shilling like the half crown, only instead of the hand and sword, is PC. XII. of these there are two sorts. one in shape of a lozenge, the other round. The Carlisle shilling, a crown CR. XII. Reverse, OBS. CARL. 1645; it is an octagon, a shilling of the same place with the sixteen penny-piece, as by the form of the castle appears, under which s for the value, but no name of place, it is an oblong square. The Dublin shilling 1641, a crown and CR. Reverse XII*l*d. Another a round plate of silver, hath nothing

but XII. stamped at the edge on one side, and NE. at the contrary egde of the other. Perhaps, says an author, it was of Newark, before the lozenge money. The Newark nine-pence, a crown between CR. and IX. below it. Reverse, OBS. NEWARK. 1646.

The sixpences are strictly like the shilling, with the difference only of VI. for XII. That of Cork has only the name of the place CORK, reverse VI. The Carlisle sixpence, CR. crowned, reverse VID. The Carlisle groat is like the sixpence, octagon, with reverse IIID. The other groats have the titles abbreviated, IIID. behind the king's head, the crown wanting over the arms, in other respects like the shilling; those of Welsh mines have the ostrich feathers before, and four behind the king's head. One has the arms in a small oval shield, and the feathers above the arms very large, has a crown the mint mark. Another has the field reverse, RELIG. PRO. LEG. ANG. LIBER. PA. Motto, EXVRGAT. DEVS. DISSIPENTVR. INIMICI. One of the like inscription has the head larger, and extending to the outer edge of the money, which the others do not. One of the Oxford mint with ox. others with the usual motto, CHRISTO. AVSPICE. REGNO. The Dublin groat, reverse IIID.; the three-pences have likewise the king's head, title, and arms, as the larger pieces, and motto, CHRISTO. AVSPICE. REGNO. The York three-pence with EBOR. a lion the mint mark, another a cinquefoil the mint mark, has the date 1642, above the arms; one with the feathers between, and III. behind the king's head, another with the feathers, has the motto EXVRGAT, &c. and in the field RELIGIO, &c. with a bell, expanded book, a rose, &c. the mint marks, and a very barbarous one, with a fleur-de-lis the mark.

The two-pence has II. behind the king's head, with titles and arms, as the three-pence, legend IVSTITIA. THRONVM. FIRMAT, with the rose,

fun, fleur-de-lis, triangle, and port-culise mint marks; one with a crown has the inner circle wanting; those of the first year have the ruff; another where the prince's device takes up the whole field; another hath the rose and crown on each side, C. D. G. ROSA. SINE. SPINA. Reverse, IVSTITIA, &c.; another has the thistle, reverse TVEATVR. VNITA. DEVS. Likewise I have a rare and curious one, exhibiting his majesty in ruff, bareheaded, looking the contrary way from the other money. CAR. D. G. MAG. BRIT. FRAN. ET. H. R. Reverse, two C's interlinked under a crown, FIDEL. DEFENSOR.

The pennies have I. behind the king's head, &c. like the two-pence; one with the prince's device, a very neat one, has the king's head extending to the outer edge, and titles abbreviated, CAR. D. G. MAG. BRIT. FR. ET. H. R. Reverse, IVSTITIA, &c. as the former. The rose-pennies, like the two-pence, but without the crown. Besides these there are the ten and twenty shilling pieces, peculiar to this king, exhibiting his majesty's figure on horseback, like the crown piece. The copper farthing, inscribed CAROLV. D. G. MA. BRI. FRA. ET. HI. REX. have the crown and scepters through it, in saltier on one side, and crowned rose on the other. The Irish half-penny has the harp crowned on the reverse, in other respects like the foregoing.

The English gold coins, I have met with of this king, are but few, and no wonder there is so little gold money of this king, (although he is said to have coined 1,500,000*l.*) for during the distractions of his reign, people's properties were so uncertain, that they were glad to invest it in this metal for security, so that people gave six or seven per cent. to exchange silver for gold; and being thus engrossed, chiefly into private hands, was either conveyed beyond sea, or committed to its mother earth for security, where undoubtedly

doubtedly a great part remains to this day; of these are the unite, xx. behind the king's head crowned in ruff, CAROLVS. D. G. MAG. BRI. FRA. ET. HIB. REX. Reverse, arms in a square shield crowned, CULTORES. SVI. DEVS. PROTEGIT. Another with the falling band, which succeeded the ruff, with a sun the mint mark; and reverse, arms in an oval shield crowned, and CR. FLORENT. CONCORDIA. REGNA.

The Scotch coins of this reign are the half crowns, like the English; reverse in a shield crowned, arms, viz. Scotland in the first and fourth quarters, which distinguishes the Scotch from the English monies. QUÆ. DEVS. CONVIXIT. NEMO. SEPARET. The shilling is neatly struck, and inscribed as the English; reverse between CR. crowned, the arms and motto as on the half crown. Another has the king's titles abbreviated to CAR. D. G. MAG. BRIT. FRAN. ET. HIB. REX. in this the king's head extends to the rim, which it does not on the former. Of this sort are fair sixpences, VI. behind the head; another like his father's money, and facing the same way, the inscription going quite round the head, CAROLVS. D. G. MAG. BRIT. FRAN. ET. HIB. REX. Reverse, the arms and legend, as before, but instead of the crown, 1633, the noble has VI. 8. behind the king's head crowned, CAROLVS. D. G. SCOT. ANG. FR. ET. HIB. R. Reverse, arms as before, in a shield crowned, CHRISTO. AVSPICE. REGNO. The forty penny piece has XL. behind the king's head crowned, and extending to the edge, the titles the same as on the noble, only the name abbreviated to CAR. Reverse, a thistle crowned, SALVS. REIPVB. SVPREMA. LEX. The quarter mark hath the like inscription, but in this it goes quite round the head, behind which is a thistle; reverse, the crowned shield, SALVS. REIP. SVFRE. LEX. weight, one pennyweight four grains. The twenty penny piece has XX. behind the king's head

crowned, extending to the edge, CAR. D. G. SCOT. ANG. FR. ET. HIB. R. Reverse, the crowned thistle, IVSTITIA. THRONUM. FIRMAT. Another has the like thistle crowned, between CR. crowned. A third has the inscription going quite round the head; another CAR. D. G. MAG. BR. FR. ET. HI. REX. Other pieces II. behind the king's head crowned, CAR. D. G. SCOT. ANG. FRAN. ET. HIB. R. Reverse, the Scotch shield crowned, and IVSTITIA, &c. C. D. G. ROSA. SINE. SPINA. Reverse, TVEATUR. VNITA. DEVS, and the half of it the same impress as the English pieces.

Copper monies of the same reign, CAROLVS. D. G. MAG. BRIT. the branched thistle; reverse, FRAN. ET. HIB. REX. behind a lion rampant, two points, the half of it has one point. The Bothwell, CR. under a crown, CAR. D. G. SCOT. ANG. FRA. ET. HIB. R. Reverse, a thistle, NEMO. ME. IMPVNE. IACESSIT. One of the same impress, but not a third of its weight, called by Mr. Sutherland, the small Bodwell of Charles I. when the liberty of coining was granted to Alexander Earl of Sterling.

Of the gold coin I have an exceeding neat piece, exhibiting his majesty's figure in curious wrought armour, crowned, and holding in his right hand the scepter, resting upon his shoulder, and in his left hand the ball, CAROLVS. D. G. MAG. BRITAN. FRAN. ET. HIB. REX. Reverse, under a crown, the arms quartered, Scotland in the first and fourth quarters, between CR. crowned, HIS. PRÆSUM. VT. PROSIM. struck perhaps when this king was in Scotland, and by the weight six pennyweights eight grains and a quarter. I take it to be coined for a rose rial, and the following piece for the spur rial, being just half the former in weight, and exhibiting the king's head crowned, looking the contrary way, and extending to the edge, CAR. D. G. MAG. BRIT. FRAN. ET. HIB. REX. Reverse, the arms

as before, VNITA. TVEMVR. There was likewise a coin of Sir William Dick, of Braid, allowed to be current amongst his colliers and salt-makers, WILLIAME. DICK. OF.

BRAID. a furnace with WD. Reverse, VIRTVTI. FORTVNA. COMES, Mercury's rod, serpents, and cornucopiae.

[To be continued.]

DISSERTATION ON THE TARTARS.

Being the fifth Anniversary Discourse delivered to the Society Feb. 21, 1788.

From the Asiatic Researches.

AT the close of my last address to you, gentlemen, I declared my design of introducing to your notice a people of Asia, who seemed as different in most respects from the Hindus and Arabs, as those two nations had been shewn to differ from each other; I mean the people whom we call Tartars: but I enter with extreme diffidence on my present subject, because I have little knowledge of the Tartarian dialects; and the gross errors of European writers on Asiatic literature have long convinced me, that no satisfactory account can be given of any nation, with whose language we are not perfectly acquainted. Such evidence, however, as I have procured by attentive reading and scrupulous enquiries, I will now lay before you, interspersing such remarks as I could not but make on that evidence, and submitting the whole to your impartial decision.

Conformably to the method before adopted in describing Arabia and India, I consider Tartary also, for the purpose of this discourse, on its most extensive scale, and request your attention, whilst I trace the largest boundaries that are assignable to it. Conceive a line drawn from the mouth of the Oby to that of the Dnieper, and bringing it back eastward cross the Euxine, so as to include the peninsula of Krim, extend it along the foot of Caucasus, by the rivers Cur and Aras, to the caspian lake, from the opposite shore of which, follow the course of the Jaihün and the

chain of Caucasian hills as far as those of Imaus; whence continue the line beyond the Chinese wall to the White Mountain and the country of Yetso; skirting the borders of Persia, India, China, Corea, but including part of Russia, with all the districts which lie between the Glacial sea and that of Japan, M. De Guignes, whose great work on the Huns abounds more in solid learning than in rhetorical ornaments, presents us, however, with a magnificent image of this wide region; describing it as a stupendous edifice, the beams and pillars of which are many ranges of lofty hills, and the dome, one prodigious mountain, to which the Chinese give the epithet of celestial, with a considerable number of broad rivers flowing down its sides. If the mansion be so amazingly sublime, the land around it is proportionably extended, but more wonderfully diversified; for some parts of it are incruited with ice, others parched with inflamed air, and covered with a kind of lava; here we meet with immense tracts of sandy deserts and forests almost impenetrable; there, with gardens, groves, and meadows, perfumed with musks, watered by numberless rivulets, and abounding in fruits and flowers; and from east to west lie many considerable provinces, which appear as valleys in comparison of the hills towering above them, but in truth are the flat summits of the highest mountains in the world, or at least the highest in Asia. Near one fourth in latitude of this extraordinary region

in the same charming climate with Greece, Italy, and Provence; and another fourth in that of England, Germany, and the northern parts of France; but the Hyperborean countries can have few beauties to recommend them, at least in the present state of the earth's temperature: to the south, on the frontiers of Irân are the beautiful vales of Soghd, with the celebrated cities of Samarkand and Bokhârâ; on those of Tibet are the territories of Cashghar, Khoten, Chegil, and Khâtâ, all famed for perfumes, and for the beauty of their inhabitants; and on those of China lies the country of Chin, anciently a powerful kingdom; which name, like that of Khâtâ, has in modern times been given to the whole Chinese empire, where such an appellation would be thought an insult. We must not omit the fine territory of Tancût, which was known to the Greeks by the name of Suica, and considered by them as the farthest eastern extremity of the habitable globe.

Scythia seems to be the general name which the ancient Europeans gave to as much as they knew of the country thus bounded and described; but, whether that word be derived as Pliny seems to intimate, from Sacai, a people known by a similar name to the Greeks and Persians; or, as Bryant imagines, from Cuthia; or, as Colonel Vallancey believes, from words denoting navigation; or as it might have been supposed, from a Greek root implying wrath and ferocity; this at least is certain, that as India, China, Persia, Japan, are not appellations of those countries in the languages of the nations who inhabit them, so neither Scythia nor Tartary are names by which the inhabitants of the country now under our consideration have ever distinguished themselves. Tâtâristân is, indeed, a word used by the Persians for the south-western part of Scythia, where the musk-deer is

said to be common; and the name Tâtâr is by some considered as that of a particular tribe; by others, as that of a small river only; while Tûrân, as opposed to Irân, seems to mean the ancient dominion of Afrâsiâh to the north and east of the Oxus. There is nothing more idle than a debate concerning the names, which after all are of little consequence, when our ideas are distinct without them. Having given, therefore, a correct notion of the country which I propose to examine, I shall not scruple to call it by the general name of Tartary, though I am conscious of using a term equally improper in the pronunciation and the application of it.

Tartary then, which contained, according to Pliny, an innumerable multitude of nations, by whom the rest of Asia and all Europe has in different ages been over-run, is denominated, as various images have presented themselves to various fancies, the great hive of the northern swarms, the nursery of irresistible legions, and by a stronger metaphor, the foundery of the human race; but M. Bailly, a wonderfully ingenious man, and a very lively writer, seems first to have considered it as the cradle of our species, and to have supported an opinion, that the whole ancient world was enlightened by sciences brought from the most northern parts of Scythia, particularly from the banks of the Jenisea, or from the Hyperborean regions: all the fables of old Greece, Italy, Persia, India, he derives from the north; and it must be owned, that he maintains his paradox with acuteness and learning. Great learning and great acuteness, together with the charms of a most engaging style, were indeed necessary to render even tolerable a system which places an earthly paradise, the garden of Hesperus, the islands of the Macares, the groves of Elysium if not of Eden, the heaven of India, the Peristân, or fairy-land, of the Persian

lian poets, with its city of diamonds and its country of Shâdcâm, so named from pleasure and love, not in any climate which the common sense of mankind considers as the seat of delights, but beyond the mouth of the Oby, in the Frozen Sea, in a region equalled only by that, where the wild imagination of Dante led him to fix the worst of criminals in a state of punishment after death, and of which he could not, he says, even think without shivering. A very curious passage in a tract of Plutarch on the figure in the moon's orb, naturally induced M. Bailly to place Ogygia in the north, and he concludes that island, as others have concluded rather fallaciously, to be the Atlantis of Plató, but is at a loss to determine, whether it was Iceland or Greenland, Spitzberg or New Zembla. Among so many charms, it was difficult, indeed, to give a preference; but our philosopher, though as much perplexed by an option of beauties as the shepherd of Ida, seems, on the whole, to think Zembla the most worthy of the golden fruit; because it is indisputably an island, and lies opposite to a gulph near the continent, from which a great number of rivers descend into the ocean.

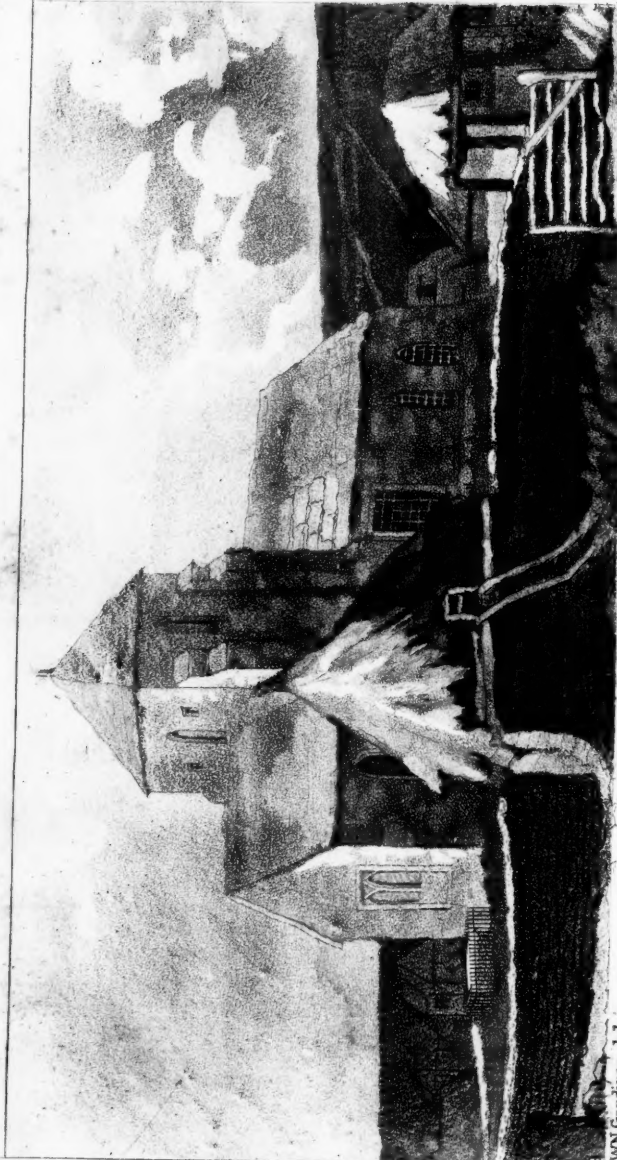
He appears equally distressed among five nations, real and imaginary, to fix upon that which the Greeks named Atlantes; and his conclusion in both cases must remind us of the showman at Eton, who, having pointed out in his box all the crowned heads of the world, and being asked by the school-boys, who looked through the glass, which was the emperor, which the pope, which the sultan, and which the great mogul, answered eagerly, "which you please, young gentlemen, which you please." His letters, however, to Voltaire, in which he unfolds his new system to his friend, whom he had not been able to convince, are by no means to be derided; and his general pro-

position, that arts and sciences had their source in Tartary, deserves a longer examination than can be given to it in this discourse: I shall, nevertheless, with your permission, shortly discuss the question under the several heads that will present themselves in order.

Although we may naturally suppose, that the numberless communities of Tartars, some of whom are established in great cities, and some encamped on plains in ambulatory mansions, which they remove from pasture to pasture, must be as different in their features as in their dialects, yet among those who have not emigrated into another country, and mixed with another nation, we may discern a family likeness, especially in their eyes and countenance, and in that configuration of lineaments which we generally call a Tartar face; but, without making anxious enquiries, whether all the inhabitants of the vast region before described have similar features, we may conclude, from those whom we have seen, and from the original portraits of Taimúr and his descendants, that the Tartars, in general, differ wholly in complexion and countenance from the Hindus and from the Arabs; an observation, which tends in some degree to confirm the account given by modern Tartars themselves, of their descent from a common ancestor. Unhappily their lineage cannot be proved by authentic pedigrees or historical monuments; for all their writings extant, even those in the Mogul dialect, are long subsequent to the time of Muhammed; nor is it possible to distinguish their genuine traditions from those of the Arabs, whose religious opinions they have in general adopted. At the beginning of the fourteenth century, Khwájah, surnamed Fadlúllah, a native of Kazvin, compiled his account of the Tartars and Mongals from the papers of one Púlad, whom the great-grandson of Holacú had sent into Tataristán for the

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W.N. Gardiner del.

ROTTINGDEAN CHURCH.

F. Birnie sculp.

Published 1 April 1863. Sold by Geo. & Co. New Bond Street London.

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sole purpose of collecting historical information; and the commission itself shews, how little the Tartarian princes really knew of their own origin. From this work of Ráshid, and from other materials, Abúlgází, king of Khwárezm, composed in the Mogul language his Genealogical History, which having been purchased from a merchant at Bokhárá by some Swedish officers, prisoners of war in Siberia, has found its way into several European tongues: it contains much valuable matter, but, like all Muhammedan histories, exhibits tribes or nations as individual sovereigns; and if Baron De Tott had not strangely neglected to procure a copy of the Tartarian history, for the original of which he unnecessarily offered a large sum, we should probably have found, that it begins with an account of the deluge, taken from the Korán, and proceeds to rank Turc, Chin, Tatár, and Mongal, among the sons of Yáfet. The genuine traditional history of the Tartars, in all the books that I have inspected, seems to begin with Oghúz, as that of the Hindus does with Ráma: they place their miraculous hero and patriarch four thousand years before Chengiz Khán, who was born in the year 1164, and with whose reign their historical period commences. It is rather surprising, that M. Bailly, who makes frequent appeals to etymological arguments, has not derived Ogyges from Oghúz, and Atlas

from Altai, or the Golden Mountain of Tartary: the Greek terminations might have been rejected from both words; and a mere transposition of letters is no difficulty with an etymologist.

My remarks in this address, gentlemen, will be confined to the period preceding Chengiz; and although the learned labours of M. De Guignes, and the fathers Vissdelou, Demailla, and Gaubil, who have made an incomparable use of their Chinese literature, exhibit probable accounts of the Tartars from a very early age, yet the old historians of China were not only foreign, but generally hostile, to them; and for both those reasons, either through ignorance or malignity, may be suspected of misrepresenting their transactions: if they speak truth, the ancient history of the Tartars presents us, like most other histories, with a series of assassinations, plots, treasons, massacres, and all the natural fruits of selfish ambition. I should have no inclination to give you a sketch of such horrors, even if the occasion called for it; and will barely observe, that the first king of the Hyhumnús, or Huns, began his reign, according to Vissdelou, about three thousand five hundred and sixty years ago, not long after the time fixed in my former discourses for the first regular establishment of the Hindus and Arabs in their several countries.

[*To be continued.*]

ACCOUNT OF ROTTING DEANE.

WITH A VIEW OF THE CHURCH.

AT the distance of a morning's airing, or near four miles east from Brightelmstone, lies Rotting Deane. This village is seated at the sea-side in a hollow, scooped by the hand of nature, and lies concealed from the view till you come just into it. Much cannot be said either for the beauty or the regularity in the

buildings which compose the place; but a neat inn, that welcomes the stranger on the guest's entrance to town, blunts even the sting of a critic, and would lull into tranquillity Envy herself. As you pass down the only street, you are agreeably surprized with the neatness and firmness of the edifices, which are far

Vol. X.

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better than such places usually exhibit. About the middle of the town is a basin of water, not brackish, though so near the sea: it has been, I presume, placed here principally for the accommodation of the neighbouring cattle, as rivers, lakes, and pools, seem rather scarce articles in these parts. Proceeding more to the northward, you discover the church, enthroned on the highest part of the town: it is a picturesque building, but not the least indebted to Palladio, or any of the other worthies of architecture, for its beauty. However, it possesses a rough simplicity, much more consonant to the place its ornaments, and more agreeable to a serious mind, than St. Peter's itself, were it transplanted thither.

A gentleman, seemingly the vicar of the place, pointed out to me the tomb of a former pastor, on which were engraven the following letters. There is something curious in them, so I give them as they were written, without daring to make the smallest alteration.

Great Aarons
sonne one of ye
Levits traine
lies here with
Comffort for to
rise againe
a man of peace
the poorer peo
ples frend
a faithful Abra
ham livd and
made an end
Sep 4 Anno 1619
Wi Savage
Vicar of this place
& parson of Ovingden.

An epitaph, in my opinion, worthy to adorn (for the matter it contains) the mausoleum of an archbishop. There is nothing more I think of note, except a few hogstyes, which might be shoved a little farther from the church-yard. To give, in a word, a concise description, it is Brighthelmstone in miniature, as it contains every necessary for bathing, &c.

A BRIEF COMPARISON OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL ARGUMENTS IN FAVOUR OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION.

BY THOMAS BARNES, D.D.

From the Memoirs of the Philosophical Society at Manchester.

THERE are few questions more important, when considered in every point of view, than those which relate to Education. Allowing the original differences stamped upon human minds to be great, yet education marks far greater and stronger lines of distinction, between one mind and another. It was education, which formed the polished and lettered sage, in the æra of the highest Grecian splendour. And it is education, which moulds the savage Indian for the desert.

"Dii Immortales! Homini Homo quid præstat!
Stulto intelligens! Quid interest! "

It is generally said, in praise of the present age, that it is more sensible, than any which have preceded, of the immense importance of education. I mean not to detract from the real merit of my cotemporaries, by hinting a suspicion, that something must be abated of this high compliment. The object and end, upon which modern education is often employed, will not, I fear, do the greatest honour to our discernment, or our piety.

Among the various plans of education, each of which has had its warm admirers, and sanguine advocates, the parent, anxiously interested

interested for the best welfare of his son, (for I wish to confine the present subject to boys,) is often greatly at a loss which to prefer. There are, probably, advantages and disadvantages peculiar to every system. The point to be wished for, is, to balance these so justly, one against another, as to form the proper conclusion.

There are not a few, both in ancient and modern times, who contend earnestly for a public scheme of education. There are others, perhaps an equal number, who object as earnestly against it. We must imagine the general views of those, who embrace the opposite sides of this question, to be exactly the same. But, they consider the several schemes, in different aspects.

I have not the vanity to hope, that I shall be able to offer a single argument, which has not been repeatedly canvassed. My utmost wish, in chusing this subject, was, not to offer something new; but to throw out a few hints, merely by way of introducing a question, than which none greater and more interesting has been, or, by our laws, can be agitated in these meetings.

That we may speak with precision on this subject, it will be necessary to define the terms, public and private education.

By Public Education, we mean, education at a large public school, consisting of perhaps two or three hundred boys, such as Eton or Westminster; where the boys live in some common apartments, destined for this use, or are boarded in great numbers, with persons, who only undertake to find them commons and accomodation.

By Private Education, we mean, education at home, in the house, and under the eye of a parent, or private tutor.

Between these two schemes, there will be almost infinite gradations. Exactly in the midway between them, are those schools, where boys

are boarded in the house of a master, become parts of his family, and are not more in number, than he can entirely manage and instruct himself.

We may perhaps class the prime objects of education, in the following order, beginning with those of less importance, and rising up to those of the greatest. Health—Knowledge—Temper—Self-government—Morals.

I. *Health.* It is questioned, whether the carelessness, which must necessarily prevail in a large public school, with respect to the several articles of diet, lodging, dampness, &c.—or the constant careful attention paid to all these circumstances, in the house of a parent, be more friendly to health, and vigour of constitution. It is said, "That an excess of caution injures both the body and the mind, rendering the one puny, and the other pusillanimous." It is added, "That, in a large number of boys, there are more incitements to play, and to those active athletic exercises, which brace the system, and render it robust and hardy."

It must be acknowledged, that the closeness of a nursery is unfriendly to the constitution. But why must we necessarily suppose a boy to be confined to a nursery, in his father's house? May he not be accustomed, at home, to any degree of hardness, at the pleasure of the parent? And are not the principles and conduct of parents, in fact very different? Nor will sufficient incitements to play be wanting, if properly attended to, and improved.

With respect to health, then, a boy may have all the advantages, without the many disadvantages, attending a more public plan. And, from what I have observed of life, I should be ready to conclude, that children, who have been educated upon the system of extreme carelessness, in these particulars, have not appeared more vigorous and healthy,

healthy, when they have grown to maturity.

II. *Knowledge.* It is urged, in favour of public education, "That emulation, that strong and noble principle, when well managed, is more likely to be felt in its proper influence, where there are many, than where there are few competitors. The numbers, and the abilities of the candidates sharpen the edge of genius and of industry, and thus push on the youthful mind to superior excellence."

It may, perhaps, be said, on the other hand, "That to the boy of more brilliant parts, and who stands at the head of his class, the argument from emulation may be allowed. But, that these will be comparatively few; and that to others, who are not able to attain this honourable elevation, it will be reversed, for that its influence will tend to discouragement and depression." It may be added, "That, in large schools, boys are necessarily connected together in classes, like horses in a carriage; that they cannot move on beyond a certain pace; and that this pace must be accommodated to the parts and quickness of the most indolent and stupid in the class; or else, it will be, for one boy in the class too quick, and for another, too slow. The consequence will be almost equally prejudicial to both. The one is pushed forward beyond his speed; he is liable to be continually punished for no fault; or hurried on through subjects, of which he has not been able to gain any clear and competent knowledge. The other is kept down from those attainments, to which he might otherwise have ascended. This constant and wretched clog, it may be said, will be prevented, by having every boy to stand single; or, at least, by matching boys of equal capacity together, who may thus be

urged forward exactly according to their strength, neither dejected by the superior genius of one, nor fettered by the greater dullness of another."

To these arguments it may, I think, with great force, be added, "That, in a very large number of boys, there will always be as many, or more, of those who do not excel, as of those who do. If, therefore, the one may be supposed to animate, or to shame, the other may, with equal truth, be supposed to keep those in countenance, whose abilities are not so bright, or whose industry is not so unremitting."

In vindication of the order, which I have assigned to knowledge, it may be observed, that the great end of mental cultivation is, to give that exercise and habit to the various powers of the mind, which may enable them to act hereafter, in all the affairs of human life, with the greatest advantage. It is not merely, the quantity of ideas acquired, but the ability obtained by the soul, of thinking, reasoning, and determining rightly, in every event of the changeful scene, which is of the greatest importance.*

III. *Temper.* Or, perhaps, more properly social affections,

It may be urged, by the advocates for private schools, "That there the heart is longer under the influence of the softer and more domestic feelings—That reverence to parents, and love to brothers, sisters, and other relations, is there in continual habit—That on these mild and tender charities of life, the temper, and the comfort of mankind chiefly depend—And, that, in a public school, these amiable scions of the soul have not room to shoot, but must, of necessity, be miserably neglected."

If to this argument it be answered, "That in a public education there will be partialities and attachments, formed:"

* "Leotychides interrogatus, quid potissimum oportet pueros ingenuos discere! Quis illis, inquit, ubi ad virilem aetatem pervenerint, usui sunt futura." Cicero.

formed:" it may be replied, "That these are not of exactly the same nature, nor will they have the same influence, on future temper and future happiness."

It will, perhaps, be said, "That in larger schools, connections and friendships may be formed, which may be of the most lasting, honourable, and advantageous tendency in future life."

This advantage appears to me to be a very precarious one. Early connections between a richer and a poorer boy, founded, probably, on caprice on the one hand, and abject obsequiousness on the other, seldom continue long. Sometimes indeed an honourable union of equals may

lay a foundation for future friendship, of the most endeared and permanent nature. And it is possible, that some instances may have occurred, of friendships formed, between youths whose fortunes were unequal, which have been as beneficial to the one, as honourable to the other. But, as boys are often separated at so early an age, and dispersed into such different scenes and regions, the hope of this ought not to be allowed much weight. And fact will, I persuade myself, bear witness to very few instances of this kind; too few, to give any great degree of force to this argument.

[To be continued.]

ACCOUNT OF THE DIVISION OF TIPPOO SULTAUN'S DOMINIONS BY THE LATE TREATY OF PEACE.

WITH REMARKS ON THE PENINSULA OF INDIA.

IN our Magazine for January, 1792, we inserted an account of the dominions then possessed by Tippoo Sultaun; and in the Magazine for May, we gave a map of Hindostan, with a concise account of the divisions of that empire. The event of war has since made a very essential alteration in those divisions, and a considerable portion of the dominions of Tippoo has, by the late treaty of peace, been ceded to the East India Company and the rest of the belligerent powers.

Tippoo ceded to the English East India Company,

Kooteary Pagodas.	
Calicut and Palicundcherry, valued at	— 9,36,765
Dindegul, Pyalny, and Verapachry	— 90,000
Kalem, Koofh, Namkool, and Sunkagherry	— 88,000
Ahtoor, Purmutty, Shad-mungul, and Wayloor	68,000
Barra - Mahal, Raycotta, and Darampoory	— 1,34,000
	<hr/> 13,16,765

About 13 lacks of rupees, or 400,000*l.* sterling per annum.

To the Mahrattas he ceded,

In the Douab, being the Coriari of Bencapour, with part of Moodgul	— 13,06,666
In Gooty, the district of Sundoor	— — 10,000
	<hr/> 13,16,666

To the Nizam,

Cuddepah, Cummum, Gan-jicotta, and Canoul	9,71,390
In the Gooty	— 51,782
In Adoni (Mooka)	— 12,162
In the Dooah, being part of Rachore and Moodgul	2,81,332

13,16,661

The first part ceded to the English is on the western side of the peninsula, and contains a fine range of sea-coasts from Mount Della to Chetiva. Dindigul, &c. forms a barrier against Tippoo's incursions to the south, and the districts of Barra-mahal, &c. hem him in to the east. These, with the territories ceded to the Nizam and Mahrattas to the east,

east, lay open Tippoo's territories on all sides.

Before the commencement of the late war, the dominions of Tippoo extended from 9-30 north latitude, as far as 15-50, having a long range of sea-coast on the west. The whole including the Myfore country, and conquests made on every side.

The Carnatic is a name which sometimes was applied to the whole of the tract of land south of the Kishna, and sometimes to a part only. The part to which it is now generally applied, is divided into Carnatic Bala-gauts and Carnatic Payen-gauts, or the region lying about or below the Gauts, or passes over the mountains. The Bala-gauts, or Table Land, as it is often called, extends from Coimbatore northward, as far north as the parallel of Surat. On the western side it approaches nearly to the Malabar Coast, particularly in the parallel of Bednore. On the east it runs in an irregular line, as far north as the Godavery river. This Table Land extends in length 10 degrees of latitude, and in its greatest breadth 7 degrees. The height on the eastern side, opposite Madras, is estimated at 3000 feet;

but as the waters decline to the east, the western side is undoubtedly the highest. This high land interrupting the periodical winds which blow from the sea, stop the greater part of the clouds, and occasion them to condense and fall in rain on the lower countries. The quantity of rain which falls on the Malabar Coast has been found by experience to equal 72 inches in a year.

Of the countries above the Gauts, we have not as yet all the information we could wish; but taking the whole peninsula of India from the Kishna and Malpurba rivers, and by a line from the latter in sixteen degrees north, it is divided as under.

Remain to Tippoo	—	62,009
Ceded the English	15,374	
Guntoor Circar	—	3779
Jaghire	—	2436
		— 21,589
Carnatic and Tanjore	—	44,297
Travancore and Cochin		9,376
Ancient possessions of the		
Mahrattas and Nizam		9,933
Their new acquisitions	—	20,707
Total square miles		167,911

DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNT OF PENPARK-HOLE, IN THE COUNTY OF GLOUCESTER.

BY GEORGE SYMES CATCOTT.

THE very melancholy circumstance of the Rev. Mr. Newnam's falling into Penpark-Hole, on the 17th of March, 1775, greatly excited the curiosity of the public, and for some weeks brought together a vast concourse of people daily to visit the gloomy spot. A few persons of credit summoned fortitude sufficient to descend into, and explore this dreary cavern, which attempt would upon any other occasion, have been rejected with horror, and deemed almost impracticable.

The mouth of this subterraneous cavern runs nearly east and west,

being about 35 feet long, and 14 wide. Near the middle is a separation caused by an ash tree, the root of which growing part in the north bank, and part in the south, supports the tree growing over the mouth of this (as I may very justly call it) tremendous cavern, for never did I till then, see so dreadful a chasm. A little below this tree, is a prop or pillar of stone, which appears to have been left with a design to keep the north, or back part from falling down. Below this pillar the tunnel extends itself higher and wider. About twelve yards from the surface or mouth of the

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the hole, is a smaller cavity, running westward, down which a person may (if he is cautious) go safely without assistance; and at the bottom, by leaning over the precipice of the rock, in a clear and light day, have a distinct view of the form and structure of the main tunnel, and part of the water below. When the cavern is viewed from this place, the spectator is immediately struck with horror, at the sight of the rugged rocks, which hang over head, and the deep and gloomy gulph beneath. The few (and indeed they are but very few) who have been bold enough to go to the bottom of this dreary cavern, descended at the place where the unfortunate Mr. Newnam fell in, which lies nearly east and west, as mentioned before; and were let down gradually by the assistance of two or three men, who attended there for that purpose. The ropes, which ran in pulleys, were fastened to the root of the ash tree before-mentioned. At first the entrance is very steep, and continues so for about 27 feet. I am informed by a gentleman (Mr. William White) who has taken a very accurate survey of it, that it is 4 feet in 6 perpendicular; and the roof in some places, not three feet in height. When you are passed this place, you immediately disappear from the eyes of the spectators. About 30 feet lower, there is a large cavern, on each side the rock, one in an east, the other in a west direction: that on the western side, which is much the smaller, may be easily entered; but that on the eastern, which is about 5 yards higher up, is far more difficult of access; though some very few curious persons have been bold enough to enter them both. An ingenious person of my acquaintance (the before-mentioned Mr. William White) who has taken a very exact drawing of the whole, informed me, that he had visited both these caverns: that to the westward extends about 20 yards,

where he found the way nearly stopped up by several large cragged stones, which appear to have fallen from the roof. These caverns are rendered still more gloomy by the bats, which are sometimes seen flying about them. I had a tolerable view of both caverns in my passage up and down, but as I was unused to visit such places, I was too anxious for my own safety, to enter that on the eastern side, but contented myself with taking an accurate survey of the other.

About the midway, there is a small projection of the rock, scarce large enough for two persons to stand on. Here I staid some minutes to breathe, as well as to take a view of this dreary place, as it cannot be seen to so much advantage, from any other part. When I had sufficiently gratified my curiosity, I walked from thence along the ridge of the rock, into the western cavern, which I found to be about 30 feet long, and 8 or 10 broad at the entrance, and nearly as much in height. I found this apartment perfectly dry, but nothing worthy of observation in it: there were a few loose stones scattered up and down the bottom, but they were neither so large or numerous, as those in the caverns below. I know not whether it may be worth mentioning, but I thought it somewhat remarkable, that when I last visited this place, I could not see a single bat in any part of it; I suppose they had changed their habitation, finding themselves disturbed and molested by persons daily descending to their peculiar domains.

When you have passed these caverns, you descend in a direct perpendicular, between 30 and 40 feet, after which, you reach the bottom, by a descent almost as steep as that you just before passed. I imagine the whole length from the surface to the bottom, when the water is low, to be about 200 feet. When you are arrived there, you land on a large quantity of broken rocks,

rocks, dirt, stones, &c. partly thrown down by persons who visit the mouth of the cave from motives of curiosity, and partly by rains, melting of snow, &c. which form a kind of bay between two caverns, both filled, when I was there the first time, with water. When you survey the place from hence, objects only of the most dismal kind, present themselves to view from every quarter: and indeed nothing less than ocular demonstration, can convey to the mind an adequate idea of the gloomy appearance of these subterranean caverns. The deep water almost directly under your feet, rendered still more gloomy, by the faint glimmering rays of light, reflected upon its surface from the openings of the chafins above, and the black rugged rocks, horrid precipices and deep yawning caverns over head, brought to my remembrance, the following lines of Milton:

- “ The dismal situation waste and wild,
- “ A dungeon horrible on all sides—
- “ No light, but rather darkness visible
- “ Serv'd only to discover sights of woe,
- “ Regions of horror, doleful shades, &c.”

The cavern on the left, which runs westward, is 78 feet in length, and 16 in breadth. The entrance into it, is rendered very awful, by a shelving roof on the north side, about 20 feet high, which gradually decreases, till it terminates in small branches running in among the rocks. When I visited this place Easter-Monday, April 17, the water was totally desiccated, and as I had with me a sufficient quantity of lights, I had an opportunity, by disposing of them properly, of traversing it quite to the end, and examining every part with the most minute circumspection, which I could not do before. I was however obliged to be very cautious how I proceeded, as the bottom and sides were still very slippery and damp, occasioned by the mud and slime which the water had deposited. On examining this cavern, I ob-

served a large quantity of semipellucid spar, on the sides and bottom; some of the former, I brought up with me, but that which adhered to the bottom, was of a whiter colour and appeared more opaque than the other. On the lower end and sides, are chafins through which I suppose the water vents itself; and from the mud and slime remaining on the sides of the rock, I conceive there must be at least 8 feet of water in this cavity, in the wet seasons. The bottom was entirely covered with large rough stones, some of them near a ton weight; which appeared to have fallen from the roof and sides. On the right, a large spacious apartment opens to your view, about 90 feet long, and 52 broad, running from the landing-place, towards the north-east, with a hard rocky vaulted roof, about 30 feet above the water, when I was there, the first time, but when the water is at the lowest, I suppose it must be at least 90 feet, so that you cannot even with the assistance of torches discover distinctly the summit of it.

A place so spacious and lofty, must exhibit to a person unaccustomed to subterranean caverns, a scene the most dismal and dreary, that imagination can possibly paint; and the pendant rocks which sometimes break in very large pieces overhead, and from the sides, strike the mind with dreadful apprehensions of danger.

The roof appears to be of nearly an equal height in every part; and very much resembles the ceiling of a Gothic cathedral. The sides are almost perpendicular, and considering the whole to be entirely the work of nature, of uncommonly just proportion. The place is rendered still more awful, by the great reverberation which attends the voice when you speak loud; and if thoroughly illuminated, must have a very beautiful appearance.

The water, which when I was there at both times, totally covered the

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the bottom, was of an oval form, and as sweet, clear and good, as any I ever drank, and in many places between 7 and 8 fathom deep; but in August 1762 it was found not more than one fathom: so that in a dry season, you may (as I am informed) safely walk round the sides. And notwithstanding, when I visited this place a second time, it was at least 20 feet perpendicular lower, than when I first went there, as it is supposed upon the most just calculation, to sink about 10 inches in a day and a night.

I could not perceive the least appearance of the two prominent rocks, as mentioned by Captain Collins, who visited this place in September, 1682. By this gentleman's account it appears, there are some caverns in the largest chafin, which when I was there, were filled with water, and consequently not discernable. Perhaps, when the place is free from that inconvenience, it may exhibit a very different appearance from what it did when I was there, and may be of much larger dimensions.

As I was determined during my stay, which was about an hour and a half, to view the place attentively, I made one of the men row a floating stage (launched whilst I was there) with several candles on it, which burnt perfectly clear, twice round the cavern, so that I had a tolerable view of every part of it.— At the further end, about 8 feet above the water, (when I was first there) is a cave, which I suppose to be the same as mentioned by Captain Sturme, who visited this place in 1669; the entrance into which is about 10 feet broad, and 5 high, and very much resembles the mouth of a large oven. A gentleman who has traversed it almost to the end, assured me, it was nearly as long as the large one below, but much narrower.

Having by this time sufficiently gratified my curiosity, I began to

think, to use the words of a great and ancient poet, of once more revisiting "The roddie Lemes of Daie." I found the ascent far more difficult than the descent, and was struck with horror at the sight of the rugged rocks I had just passed. In my passage up, I was greatly alarmed by being thrown on my back, in a place where the rock was almost directly perpendicular over the water, but soon recovered myself, though not without difficulty, and was very thankful when I had once more put my feet on *terra firma*, and had a sight of my anxious friends and acquaintance, who flocked round me, as if I had been a being risen from the subterranean world; and laughed very heartily, when they saw the dirty condition I was in, and the very grotesque figure I made with a large collier's hat, jacket and trowsers, and my handkerchief bound round my head.

I shall now take leave for the present, of this dismal place, with the following remark, viz. Should any one be desirous of seeing yawning caverns, dreadful precipices, pendant rocks, and deep water, rendered still more tremendous by a few faint glimmering rays of light reflected from its surface (which had passed through the crannies above) than if obscured by total darkness; let him descend, and take a survey of Penpark-Hole, and I will engage his curiosity will be fully gratified, as he will there see such dismal scenes, as are scarcely to be paralleled, and of which the most lively imagination can form at best, but a very faint idea.

An ingenious person* who has several times descended this place in search of Mr. Newnam's body, twice made the tour of Europe, and visited most of the remarkable caverns in this part of the globe, assured me, he had seen very few more horrid and difficult to explore, than that of Penpark-Hole.

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* The gentleman above alluded to, is Captain James Hamilton, formerly an officer in the late King of Prussia's service.

AN ILLUSTRATION OF SOME ANTIENT SEA-CHARTS IN THE
LIBRARY OF S^T. MARK, AT VENICE.

BY SIG. FORMALIONE.*

HOW far the coast of Africa was known, previous to the bold attempt made by Gama, to cross the ocean and reach the shores of India, no one has hitherto proved. The whole lies buried in conjecture. Fragments of ancient history, traditionary remnants, stories both ancient and modern, spread abroad with imposture, and supported with consummate assurance, have hid in impenetrable darkness this species of literature. Vain would it be to invoke the deities of criticism to pass sentence, where no documents remained, nor any ground on which to establish an opinion. Neither the tables of Agathademon, joined to the geography of Ptolemy, nor the Peutingeria by Velfer, and afterwards by Saib, throw any light on this impervious cloud. Both one and the other, whatever their antiquity, have owed their origin to an unskilful hand, formed by caprice, or for the sole purpose of presenting to the eye the climates, latitudes, and longitudes of places, whose situations on the globe were known, or else the principal roads, and most considerable cities, with the rivers, population, &c. of the several provinces. The Tables of Ptolemy seem positively designed for the use of astrologers; and undoubtedly, if they are not destined for the formation of horoscopes, I hardly know to what other use they can be applied. It is impossible that such abortions of science should have had their origin in enlightened ages, for they bear the marks of barbarism itself. Even Italy, the part of the Roman empire most known, and above all, the Adriatic, the sea most frequented by the navigators of old, are so grossly and erroneously represented, that they are with difficulty made out and

distinguished in the present day. Of all the islands of Dalmatia, barely two or three are pointed out in them; from this a conclusion may be drawn respecting the rest. If we cast an eye on Africa, we recollect its coast stretching a little beyond the Cape of Guardafui, and from the Straights of Gibraltar, continuing only as far as Cape Non.

But we must not conclude from hence, that the ancients were acquainted with nothing more in that quarter of the globe. The Canaries were known to them under the name of the Fortunate Isles, the Azores under that of Cotiteride, and perhaps the Cape de Verdes, though neither these nor other shores, and African islands, are found marked with any degree of precision in the said charts.

So many failures and defects made me almost doubt the correctness of the ancient maps we now have in wood and copper; but having consulted two old charts, which are in the library of Saint Mark, I am persuaded of the contrary. Noble and magnificent is the donation made to the republic of Venice by Cardinal Bessarione. It is written in Greek characters of gold, black and red, richly painted, notwithstanding it is far from being elegant, or of great antiquity. The extraordinary size of the parchment leaves on which it is written, far exceeds in length the plates printed, a convincing proof it is not original. Another of earlier date, in the year 1300, which is existing in the same library, is roughly drawn. I consulted this, in hopes of coming at some information, but I found it in every thing similar to the others, except in some trifling minutiae, of no consequence.

The Peutingeria Table is sufficiently

* Author of the "Ancient Navigation of the Venetians," a translation of which was given in this Magazine, vol. I.

ciently known among the learned. It was an itinerary chart of Asia and Europe, beginning from the Straights of Gibraltar, and finishing at the ocean, where Alexander the Great had reached. Another of an early date, is a manuscript chart on parchment, which was removed from Venice to the Ducal Library at Parma. But neither one nor the other (both of which many years ago I had an opportunity of attentively examining, during my residence at Parma) offer any one trait of discovery and voyages, more than the portion of the world at that time known, and described by the Greek and Roman geographers.

Also in the ages of darkness, in which the empire of ignorance, now totally demolished, flourished; in those times of worthless abjection and abasement of human understanding, many very important discoveries were made, as well by sea as by land, which I look upon as the first step towards that memorable epocha of the discovery of the Indies. I have in another place observed, that the Venetians were the first among the Europeans who had the good fortune to penetrate beyond the supposed limits of the earth.

Commerce, the parent of the arts and industry, conducted this renowned nation to the extremity of our hemisphere. The shores of the South and North Sea, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic, the Frozen, the Baltic, were all visited by Venetian navigators, long before the pretended conquerors of the ocean, Gama and Columbus, led forth their squadrons, and planted their colonies. This is a stubborn fact, which I will engage to prove with the fullest and most incontestible evidence. I shall not produce those stale and ordinary proofs which many have advanced before me, and which I also have elsewhere availed myself of. I have at last dug up new monuments, by

which the clouds and darkness of antiquity are totally dissipated, and an ungrateful posterity, invidiously inimical to the glory of the Venetians, must be at length fully convinced.* The discovery which I some years ago fortunately made in the library of Saint Mark, must naturally cause a revolution in the republic of letters, and throw down those old ideas, which till then they had so unseasonably maintained on the state of navigation and hydrography, in the age preceding that wherein the revival of the belles lettres in Italy took place. A discovery of such importance deserves to be laid before the public in the most exact and clear manner possible.

During the time I was exerting myself to discover what analogy there was betwixt the history of commerce and that of the navigation of the Venetians, a subject as new, and in itself as important, as it was difficult to treat in a manner it deserved; the work which appeared to me superiorly deserving attention, was that of Marin Sauudo the elder, firnamed Torfello. He was in vogue about the conclusion of the thirteenth century, and the beginning of the fourteenth, who, as appears by his writings, was a nobleman, and an expert navigator. Maritime commerce had made him better acquainted with all the coasts, harbours, and markets for goods, in the Mediterranean, than any other of his own time. After the total expulsion of the Europeans from Syria, he strained every nerve in forming new projects for the recovery of it, and firmly establishing himself therein. His whole system he explained in a large volume, and repaired to Rome, to lay it before the Pope; but some particular circumstances intervening, put an end to his speculative views.

This is the book, entitled *Secreta fidelium Crucis*, published with the types

* We should be obliged to any of our valuable and learned correspondents for their remarks on this bold assertion of our author.

types of Bougarsius, in his collection in two volumes, *Gesna Dei per Francoos*; the second contains nothing but the works of Sauudo. In the library of Saint Mark, among many valuable manuscripts, is preserved this celebrated work, written upon parchment, in the life-time, and perhaps by the very hand of the author; this I was determined to consult, in order to be sure of the authenticity of the copy.

Curious indeed is the information he gives relative to every the minutest circumstance which regards the commerce of those times. He calculates the expences for the support of fleets and armies; there is also laid down a method and rule for military discipline by sea and land; warlike engines are described, and the various forms of the ships then used; and, in short, the theory and practice of the commerce of all Europe, Asia, and Africa, at that period, fully explained. He then sets down the sundry profits and advantages accruing to Venice from every port in the ocean, the Black Sea, and Mediterranean, the Archipelago and Adriatic excepted; whence are produced iron, ship timber, hemp, tar, pitch, grain, wax, furs, drugs, jewels, wool, salt, and every other production, which formed the basis of the richest part of their commerce. He appears to have written only such things as have been the result of experience, not determining calculations unfounded in proof, and frequently void of probability, as some of our modern writers have done.

After having done all this, he sits down to describe, place by place, the several coasts of Egypt, Syria, Caramania, Natolia, and other shores washed by the Mediterranean; and that with such a degree of precision, as makes him stand unrivalled by succeeding imitators. The desire of availing myself of so accurate a description, respecting coasts to this day but slightly known, rivetted my attention; but the barbarous names

given to places no longer heard of, nor observable in ancient or modern charts, gave me to understand, that all my labour would be in vain, unless I could have recourse to some chart of nearly the same date, by which to be able to regulate myself. Having communicated my difficulties to the Abbè Morelli, the keeper of the public library of St. Mark, it came into his head to shew me an ancient manuscript, composed of certain hydrographical charts, with neither the contents nor the value of which he was in the least acquainted. This was a treasure unknown to any, not even to the author of Venetian Literature. On opening the book, I remained thunderstruck, at seeing in the title-page *Andreas Bianco de Veneci's me fecit anno MCCCCXXXVI.* a thing so astonishing, that I could hardly credit my own senses. In fact, what surprise must it not create in me to see a work of that age so correct, and so different from the tables of Ptolemy! Italy, the Adriatic, the Archipelago, the Black Sea, here assumed their real form. The islands of Dalmatia are so well expressed and delineated, and their situation so well described, that absolutely the modern charts fall short of these. As also the Morea and the Crimea are so justly set down, that surprised me not a little, having never dreamed of their being ever known to the ancients.

After having greedily run over this manuscript treasure, I hardly could view it but as a discovery truly inestimable. I begun to fear that my eyes deceived me, and that my hopes would quickly fall to the ground, in finding the book unauthenticated and apochryphal. I therefore called in to my aid the Abbè Morelli, an able decypherer of antique characters; and the result of the conference was, that the work was genuine, and composed about the æra pointed out.

A perfect equality in the characters, as well as drawing, convinced

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vinced me there was no reason to suspect any monastic fraud, as Sig. Tomaso Temanzo, perhaps, with reason, has done, respecting that piece of deformity, an ancient plan of this capital, of the which I cannot refrain from saying, that it is totally disfigured in the print of it which is published. From that time I resolved not to deprive the public of a relic, in itself so truly valuable. What end would the invention of printing answer, if it was not employed in the propagation and cultivation of the learned sciences? I should fail in the duty I owe to myself, as well as to the public, was I to withhold from the individual the

fruits, whatever they are, of my studies.

In order to make known the ancient discoveries made by the Venetians on the African coasts, from the Streights of Gibraltar to that of Babel Mandel, previous to the voyage of Vasco de Gama, the only charts which can be of service in elucidating the subject, are the two which were here drawn; but I should be guilty of a deficiency in gratifying the curiosity of the public, was I to omit giving a general description of all the others. I will give it as concise, and with as true a colouring, as I should expect it from the hands of others.

[To be continued.]

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF NAVIGATION.

IN SEVERAL ESSAYS.

ESSAY I.—Of the Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Assyrian Navigators.

IN the early stages of society, the wants of men are few; content with the produce of their native soil they have little temptation to risk the dangers of the sea, and it is only when nations have arrived at a certain degree of civilization and knowledge of the arts, that they are enabled to construct embarkations capable of encountering the storms of the main.

Vain must be our pretensions to ascertain in what part of the globe the rich mine of arts was first explored; but as far as we can trace it back, the arts have generally travelled from east to west, and for the priority of civilization three potent nations are made each to put in a claim—the Hindoos, the Egyptians, and the Chinese. But the Chinese themselves confess, that they derive the arts from Hindostan, and Confucius is not ashamed to honour the Brahmins as his masters in philosophy; and Egypt can by no means contest the palm of antiquity with Hindostan, a country considered by the oldest nations on

the face of the earth, as the most remote origin of sciences and arts.

But the philosophy and religion of that people, both which are intimately connected, must however have impeded the progress of the arts among them, and particularly that of navigation. Emigration subjects the man to the loss of his *cast*, and from this law the Banians or merchants only are excepted. By means of this privilege to a peculiar order of men, the Hindoos carried on an extensive commerce, and sent colonies into very distant regions.

The first essays of all nations in the naval arts, we have the most convincing proofs are rude and imperfect; hollow pieces of timber little better than a tray and basket, or vessels covered with hides, served them at first for the passage of rivers; what vessels they built when they first ventured on the sea, history nowhere describes, but many concurring circumstances combine to assure us that they were small, rude, and ill contrived.

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Of this we may be assured by the number of vessels employed by the celebrated Semiramis, in her expedition to India. Diodorus calls them 2000 sail, and tells us they were opposed by the fleet of Stauroabates, king of India, consisting of double that number.

The Egyptians like the Hindoos from religious scruples, bore a great aversion to the sea, yet the whole nation were not ignorant of the sea affairs, having likewise an order of men among them who followed nothing else; and the Greeks candidly confess they learned navigation from them.

The Egyptian vessels of burthen were constructed, says Herodotus, (*Euterpe*, c. 96) of a species of thorn, which resembles the lotos of Cyrene. They cut plants two cubits square, and secured them together with the bark of the byblus, made into ropes. They had a rudder, which went through the keel of the vessel; their mast was made of the same thorn, and the sails were formed from the byblus. These vessels were some of them of great burthen. This curious account gives a clear idea of the imperfect state of naval architecture in these days.

The Phœnicians, as they are denominated by the Greeks, anciently occupied the whole country of Palestine: the sterility of their native soil compelled them to derive from their industry what that sterility had denied them. They addicted themselves to trade and manufactures, and became so celebrated for their commerce, that they obtained the epithet of "Chanaanites" or "sons of the merchant." They were the first who made long voyages. The Adriatic and Tyrrhene seas, Iberia and Tartessus were first of all explored by them. Their vessels were not round but of fifty oars.*

When the nation of the Jews

broke from their captivity in Egypt, and over-running Palestine, drove the terrified inhabitants to the sea coast; Sidon, at that time celebrated for its commercial opulence, opened an asylum to the fugitives, who were employed by the prudent Sidonians to extend their commerce and form colonies abroad. Their first settlements to the westward were Cyprus and Rhodes; they passed afterwards into Greece, Sicily and Sardinia, carried colonies into Gaul, and explored the southern coast of Spain. On the African shore in the Mediteranean, they founded that powerful city Carthage, and still coasting along, they found that the Mediteranean communicated by a narrow strait with another sea, which we now call the Atlantic. Here their navigations were sometime at a stand; but, encouraged by success, they ventured about 1250 years before the Christian æra, to pass the Streights and enter the ocean. According to their usual custom they sent colonies to the new discovered countries. The island now known by the name of Cadiz, first engaged their attention.

By degrees they grew familiar with the navigation of the ocean, and extended themselves to the southward of the Streights, as they had before done to the northward, and Strabo assures us that soon after the Trojan war, the Phœnicians had explored a considerable portion of the western coast of Africa, where they had planted colonies and built cities. Their colony of Cadiz was very convenient for extending their navigation to the north; accordingly we find them coasting the shores of Portugal, Spain, and Gaul; and extending their commerce even to the island of Great Britain, where it is supposed they made settlements, but certain it is they carried on a considerable trade in lead and tin.

These intrepid navigators extended

* Herod. Clio, c. 143.

tended their commerce as far as the Black Sea, to Bythia, and Colchis. They were accustomed to make annual voyages through the Palus Meotides for the support of their commerce. They penetrated even to the shores of the Baltic, and brought from thence amber, which they sold again to the different nations on the coasts of the Mediterranean. But the most astonishing effort of their skill and courage, was the circumnavigating Africa at a very early period. To prove that the Phœnicians actually performed this voyage, the strongest evidences may be produced. Pliny, l. ii. c. 69, tells us on the authority of Cælius Antipater, a celebrated historian who flourished in the time of the sedition of the Gracchi, that in his days two ships sailed from Spain, and went to traffic on the coast of Ethiopia. He adds that Hanno the Carthagenian, sailed round Africa into the Red Sea, and returned the same way, and that Hamilco setting out at the same time sailed northward as far as Thulé, which some think was Iceland, but others, with more reason suppose it to be the Shetland islands. He also asserts, on the authority of Cornelius Nepos, a faithful and much esteemed historian, that in his time a certain Eudoxus, flying the pursuit of Ptolemy Lathurus king of Egypt, embarked on the Arabian gulph, and arrived at Cadiz.

But the most circumstantial account of the circumnavigation of Africa which is descended to us, is that related by Herodotus, and which the Phœnicians performed by order of Nechos, king of Egypt, about 610 years before the Christian æra. The Phœnician fleet sailed from the Red Sea, entered the southern ocean, and kept constantly in sight of land. When autumn approached they went on shore, sowed grain, and watching until it was ripe, gathered in their harvest

and re embarked. Coasting in this manner along the coast of Africa, they were two years in arriving at the pillars of Hercules; they entered the Mediterranean, and went up to the mouth of the Nile, in the third year after their setting out. (Herod. l. iv. c. 42.) It is worthy of remark, that Herodotus strenuously endeavours to throw suspicion and doubts on the truth of this narrative; and treats as fabulous the very circumstance which confirms the veracity of the story. He could not conceive, he says, how these navigators could see the sun in a position contrary to that in which he is seen in Europe; and yet it is certain, as soon as they crossed the equator, it must appear so to them.

A few years after the expedition performed by order of Nechos, Xerxes charged a Persian of high rank with a similar commission,* but he did not proceed so far as the Phœnicians. Still more recently, the Carthagenians dispatched Hanno, an experienced navigator, to make discoveries on the western coast of Africa. His relation, published originally in the Punic language, and afterwards translated into Greek, has come down to us. And by this account we learn, that the Carthagenian commander has penetrated at least as far as the fifth degree of northern latitude.†

Other writers there are who ascribe to the Phœnician navigators a much earlier antiquity, and assert with a considerable share of evidence, that a fleet of that nation sailed along the coast of Africa, and doubled the Cape of Good Hope, as far back as Sesostris, king of Egypt. Nay, some writers contend, that the commerce of the Phœnicians extended to the new world itself. This suggestion arises from the description which Diodorus gives of a large island discovered, and inhabited by the Carthagenians, in the ocean, far beyond the Straights of Gibraltar. A Carthagenian vessel was, it seems, driven by

* Herodot. l. iv. n. 43.

† See Mem. de l'Academie des Inscriptions.

by a tempest upon this island, of which the mariners, in their return, made the most luxuriant report.

The love of novelty, and perhaps domestic oppression, engaged so many to embark for this terrestrial Paradise, that the senate of Carthage found it necessary to check this emigration. This discovery they endeavoured to keep a profound secret; but it is evident, from Strabo, Pliny, and Plutarch, that the Greeks had obtained some information thereof. It has, therefore, been concluded by many authors, that these fortunate islands were the West India, and by others the Canary Islands.

It is not possible to contemplate without astonishment the maritime power and opulence of these people. No nation of antiquity was ever equal to the Phœnicians, either in the opulence or extent of their commerce, the number, power, or grandeur, of their colonies. Their fleets brought from the East Indies to the shores of the Red Sea that world of spices, which they afterwards distributed to the most remote corners of the globe. Spain found them silver, Africa gold, Britain tin; and from the shores of the Baltic they brought amber. Carthage, one of her colonies, contested the empire of the world with imperial Rome. To give an idea of the power and opulence of Tyre, we must make use of the emphatical language of holy writ—"O Tyrus! thou hast said," &c. See Ezekiel, chap. xxvii. ver. 3, to end of ver. 25.

By this warm and animated description of Tyre, we see that the trade of that city was boundless. It was, in fact, the center of commerce; and in this point, prophetic history coincides with holy writ.*

Of the method, or the instruments by which the Phœnicians directed their navigation, we know nothing, except that they guided their course by an accurate and scientific observation of the lesser bear.

Like our galleys, the Phœnician vessels went both by sails and oars.

They had ships of different constructions, for war and commerce. Ships of war were long and pointed; the merchantmen were broad, deep, and capacious.

But before we quit the Phœnician navigation, it will be proper to notice the voyages made for Solomon, who, we are told by holy writ, "had a navy at Tarshish, which once in three years brought him gold, silver, ivory, apes, and peacocks."† On this voyage the ingenious traveller, Mr. Bruce, has given a long dissertation, in which he supposes, upon strong presumption, that Tarshish was situated on the coast of Zanguebar, near the present city of Melinda.‡

David took possession of the two ports of Eloth and Ezeon-geber, which ports his son Solomon visited in person, and by means of his friendship with Hiram, king of Tyre, collected ship-wrights and seamen; pilots he was obliged to find elsewhere, who were acquainted with the Arabian Gulph and Indian Ocean. Now a vessel sailing from Suez, or the Elanitic Gulph, in any of the summer months, will find a steady wind down the gulph, where she will meet variable winds to carry her to the Streights; and there she will find the sea monsoon, which blows S. W. and will carry her to any part of India. On her return, she will be favoured with the contrary monsoons; by the help of these winds, in very early ages, the Indian trade was carried on without difficulty.

Many doubts have arisen where the Ophir and Tarshish of the scriptures were situated. We are told that the trade was carried on from the Elanitic Gulph, and brought returns of gold, silver, and ivory; and that the voyage took up three years. On examining these circumstances, Mr. Bruce is clearly of opinion, that Tarshish was situated near Melinda, on the African coast, and Ophir he takes to be Sofala, on the same coast.

[To be continued.]

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* Strabo, l. xvi. p. 1097. † 1 Kings, x. 22. ‡ See Bruce's Travels, Vol. I. p. 430.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

ANECDOTES ET RECEUIL, &c. or, *Secret and interesting Anecdotes of the Court of Russia, with Observations on the Customs and Natural History of the various Nations of the Russian Empire.* By a Traveller, who resided thirteen Years in that Country. 8vo. 6 Vol. Paris, 1792.

WHO is the author of these volumes is unknown; he boasts, however, of having many illustrious acquaintances, and says, that the particulars of natural history he was favoured with by Professor Fisher.

The work has little order or connection, but is, however, interesting. The author seems to have had good information, and to be a judicious observer of men and things.

Of Peter I. we have a variety of anecdotes.

Peter one day went on board a ship of war at Cronstadt, and found the crew at dinner; he sat down with them, and ate of their meat and peas, which was very bad, and found all the ship's provisions the same: he immediately summoned the captains, tried the commissioners of the victualling, and had them directly hanged.

His senators one day neglected to come to the senate at the time appointed; Peter met such of them as they arrived, and gave them a good caning. When this tyrant had chastised any one unjustly, he would frankly acknowledge it, and tell them to remind him of it the next time he offended, when he should escape punishment.

Peter, however, acted with more justice in other affairs. A priest having published a long catalogue of miracles, which he ascribed to an image of the Virgin Mary, had the priest and image brought before him, and commanded a miracle to be

wrought: the priest confessed his fraud, and was justly condemned to the knout, and imprisonment for life.

Peter was an enemy to pomp and ceremony. At the entertainments he gave, he forgot the monarch, and took no offence at what was said. He generally got drunk at these entertainments, and made his guests drunk also.

The Czar was suspicious of his own subjects, and preferred foreigners. Although he sometimes shewed great personal courage, yet he was subject to the most trifling terror, and was afraid to sleep alone. He was sometimes attacked with involuntary paroxysms of terror and rage, which distorted his whole countenance.

Our author proceeds with anecdotes of the reigns of Peter II. and his successor, and gives an account of the Russians, whom he describes as a most despicable race, ignorant, superstitious, obstinate, and servile to the highest degree; that dishonesty reigns among the high as well as the lowest classes; in short, that they are a nation of slaves. Their police, he says, is extremely bad.

MEMMOIREN DIENENDE TOT OPHELDERINC, &c. or, *Memoirs tending to elucidate the Events which took place during the late War with England.* By the Hon. James Rensdorp, LL.D. Burgomaster of the City of Amsterdam. 2 Vol. 8vo. Amsterdam. 1790.

This work, although printed in 1790, was not published till after the author's death, which happened a few months ago. He was personally concerned in the events he relates; and as he had good information, the book cannot fail to attract attention.

He begins with a defence of his own conduct, for he had the misfortune at one time to fall under the displeasure of the friends of the house of Orange, and at another time of the patriots.

To judge impartially of these Memoirs, we must lay aside our prejudices as Englishmen. They open with a view of the political interests of the United Provinces, and the author shews the impolicy of their entering into treaties of alliance with their more powerful neighbour; and of the still greater impolicy of exacting articles, which are contrary to the interests of the nation that grant them.

He instances the third and fourth articles of the treaty, 1674, with England; an article which it was not the interest of England to adhere to.

M. Rendorp thinks that the accession of the republic to the armed neutrality was the real cause of the war, although not mentioned in the British manifesto. As to the affair of Paul Jones, he asserts boldly, that the account given by the English ambassador of that affair was not strictly true. He likewise accuses the same ambassador of instigating the people of Antwerp to petition the emperor to open the Scheldt. Whether these charges against Lord Dover are true, we will not pretend to determine.

M. Rendorp maintains, that his countrymen had, by the treaty of 1674, a right to supply the French with timber and masts, but blames their imprudence in risking their commerce on that account. Their State was then defenceless, which he ascribes to their constitution.

The author mentions a very singular circumstance, of which he was informed by M. Visscher, adjunct pensionary of Amsterdam, that a certain Englishman, whose name was Montague, had offered to bring to the Texel ten English frigates, from twenty-four to thirty-six guns each, completely manned

and armed; for which treason to his country, he was to receive eighty thousand pounds, but was not to have any reward if the plan failed of success. The scheme appeared highly absurd to M. Rendorp; but it was communicated with such confidence, had the concurrence of the Duke De la Vauguyon, and other circumstances, made it so plausible, that he acquainted the other burghermasters with it; they answered that it was highly pleasing to them, and that they wished it to be proposed at the Hague. Accordingly, the Prince of Orange and the grand pensionary were informed of it; proper signals were appointed, to prevent being deceived, and precautions were taken against a surprise and attack of the vessels lying in the roads of the Texel. Particular mention was made of the state of these frigates, together with their names and those of their commanders: but no one could ever give a clear account of the circumstances of this strange proposal. The French ambassador, and pensionary, seemed not to have the least doubt of its success; and even the prince, though he appeared to indulge no very high expectations from the offer, thought it not impossible that some, at least, of those frigates might be brought to the Texel; for, one day, when at table at the Helder, on hearing some guns fired, he exclaimed, there are the English frigates! These hopes, though greatly abated, continued for some time; and it was affirmed, that the Dorset, a new ship carrying thirty-six eighteen pounders, was to be the first that would arrive. At Amsterdam were several English sailors, that were said to belong to the crew, who were for some time maintained by the government; but they were afterward ordered to depart, when the hope of the promised capture had entirely subsided.

The account given by the burghermaster, of the debates which about
this

this time took place, concerning the construction of a haven in the neighbourhood of the Texel, in which ships of the line might lie with safety during the winter, exhibits a strong instance of that mean jealousy of some of the cities, which leads them to oppose every scheme, however advantageous and necessary to their country, that may, even in the remotest manner, interfere with their own narrow views. The prince being at the Texel on this occasion, a council of war was held, in which, as Admiral Hartsinck had affirmed that there were four ships of the line and two frigates ready for sea, it was resolved that these men of war should go on a cruize, to intercept the English transports with troops, that were expected to sail from the Weser:—but this expedition did not take place, because the rear Admiral Zoutman, who was to have commanded it, and some of the captains, thought that they should be too much exposed to the enemy; this was, at least, the reason assigned by the prince, in answer to M. Rendorp's enquiries. The not sailing of this squadron was the occasion of much discontent, and confirmed the general popular suspicions of the inactivity of the government. In these reproaches, says our author, the truth was greatly exaggerated; though it cannot be denied, that a certain want of energy was evident in the administration of affairs.

About this time, a circumstance, which had long been known to the burgermasters of Amsterdam, was brought before the public by M. Van Lynden; who, on being offered an embassy to Vienna, declared that he would not accept of any such commission, as long as the Duke of Brunswick should retain his influence over the councils of the prince, and the administration of public measures. It appeared that, in 1768, a written engagement had been drawn up by M. Bleiswyk, then pensionary of Delft,

by which the duke was bound at all times to afford the prince his advice and assistance; but the words in which this obligation was expressed, seemed to imply that his highness was indefinitely bound in every thing to ask the duke's advice. This agreement was made without the knowledge of the stadtholder's best friends; and it is remarkable that both Count Bentinck and Sir Joseph Yorke, when they heard of it, expressed their disapprobation in very strong terms. It appears, in fact, to have been a most disingenuous artifice, by which the duke took advantage of the prince's youth and inexperience, in order to perpetuate his own authority. How much this transaction increased the resentment of the people, is well known; and the consequences of it may be a useful lesson to princes; it may teach them not to sacrifice the confidence of the public, to a weak partiality for their favourites.

The remainder of the first volume contains an account of the origin of that hatred toward our author, which was afterward displayed by burgermaster Hooft, and the pensionary Van Berckel. It appears that, when the stadtholder had laid before the states the papers found on Mr. Laurens, the pensionary was seized with such a panic, that he declared to the burgermasters that he dared not venture to go to the Hague, lest the prince should imprison him, unless they would first send the other pensionary to know the intentions of his highness, and to obtain an assurance that nothing of the kind should be attempted against him. With this ridiculous message, M. Visscher went to the prince, who immediately gave him the strongest assurances that his colleague had nothing to apprehend. Notwithstanding this, Van Berckel persisted in his refusal to trust himself at the Hague, and pretended that his wife was so terrified, that she would not suffer him

him to go. The burghermasters, though they despised him for his pusillanimity, indulged him in his wishes; and the rather, as, by the roughness of his manners, he had so disgusted the prince and the grand pensionary, that they had declared that they neither could, nor would, transact any business with him:—but, some months after this, the pensionary finding that the affair of the American treaty was no longer mentioned, recovered his courage, and resolved to go to the Hague, in order to make a report of some business in the assembly of the states of Holland. The burghermasters, hearing of his intention, ordered him to deliver his report in writing, and forbade his personally appearing in the assembly:—but, in the year 1782, the anti-orange party, instigated by the French ambassador, were desirous of having Van Berckel at the Hague; and burghermaster Hooft proposed that the prohibition should be annulled: not being able to obtain this measure, he declared, with great warmth, that he would not go on the deputation to the states, unless the pensionary might be permitted to attend him. A few weeks afterward, some of the pensionary's friends in the council represented to the burghermasters, that their refusing to suffer Van Berckel to accompany their deputies to the Hague, had occasioned great discontents among the people, the consequences of which might be dangerous; and they therefore proposed that the prohibition should be withdrawn, on his making a written apology for some expressions which had given offence to the magistrates. This apology he could not be persuaded to make; and, instead of it, gave a verbal declaration of his readiness to execute all the commissions with which the burghermasters might entrust him; on which the president told him that he should be allowed to accompany the deputies. Our author, foreseeing

that his opposition to this measure would be of no avail, chose not to countenance it by his presence.

The second volume commences with an account of the overtures for a separate peace made to the author by the Marquis de Cordon, through M. Triquetti the Sardinian agent, in May 1781. Similar proposals were afterward offered by Paul Wentworth, Esq. who went over to Holland for this purpose. After Mr. Wentworth's return, several letters passed between M. Rendorp and this gentleman; who, in his last, seemed to complain that his negotiations had been revealed to Sir Joseph Yorke, and that the disposition of the ambassador toward him was not the most friendly. Sir Joseph then interested himself in the business, and Mr. Wentworth was again sent over in the beginning of 1782; but the negotiations were interrupted by the change of the ministry. Mr. Fox was inclined to conclude a peace with Holland: but, before his intentions could be known, the French ambassador, by an insolence of conduct, his authority for which was denied by his own court, and by his influence with many of the members of the government, had contrived to precipitate the republic into an engagement to form a plan of operations in concert with the French court for carrying on the war: and to acknowledge Mr. Adams in the public character of ambassador from the united states of America. Thus ended all hopes of a separate peace; which the Dutch might then have obtained on much more favourable terms, than were afterward secured for them by the perfidious court of France. What happened after this, says the author, shews how exceedingly imprudent it is for the republic to involve itself in circumstances, which oblige it to adopt whatever measures a more powerful ally may think fit to prescribe. "I will not affirm, (adds he,) that any other court would not have treated us in the

the same manner. All courts think and act alike; provided they can gain their end, they are very indifferent concerning the means. To involve an ally in a ruinous war, to contribute as little as possible to its assistance, and to sacrifice its interest, whenever by so doing they can promote their own, are the maxims by which all princes have, in all times, regulated their conduct." It appears, from the burghmaster's account, that the conduct of the French ministry was the most treacherous that could be imagined; and that the proposal, of combining their naval force with that of the Dutch, was only intended to prevent the latter from making peace with England; they never proposed any definite plan of operations to the republic, in which it

could join; and they refused to convoy the Dutch East India ships even from Cadiz to Brest. When pressed to do this, the French ambassador pretended that nothing more was meant by the plan of combining their naval operations, than that the parties should inform each other of what was to be done by their respective fleets. This minister afterward insisted that a squadron of ten ships should be sent to Brest, at a time when he knew that it could not be done without exposing the republic to the greatest danger; and he made their non-compliance a pretence to justify his court in violating the promise of not concluding a peace, without procuring the most favourable conditions for its ally.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRAVELS THROUGH SWITZERLAND, ITALY, SICILY, AND THE GREEK ISLANDS, TO CONSTANTINOPLE. Vol II. By Thomas Watkins, A.M.

[Continued from page 142.]

THE first letter of this volume is dated from Messina, of which place we have a description, and a view of its present desolate state. From hence our traveller proceeded up Mount Ætna, and took a view of the crater, which he thus describes.

At length, after the most inconceivable difficulties, stood upon the very summit of Ætna; from which, for a few seconds, I gazed into the crater; but, oh! how great was my surprise, when instead of such a shallow basin as that of Vesuvius, I saw a horrid gulf, not less than two miles in circumference, lined with shaggy rocks, and deeper than the eye could fathom! How terribly grand would it appear, were it possible to sail over it in a balloon when brim-full and boiling over with liquid fire! To behold it in this state might I think be possible, but to describe it would require the abilities of Shakspeare; and where are such to be found? You recollect this crater was the grave of Empedocles, who unfortunately forgot to leave his iron

sandals behind him, before he attempted to impose upon the world a belief of his immortality, by throwing himself into it. When I stood upon its brink, Pocock was about a hundred yards behind me. Not hearing him answer when I called, I returned, and found him alarmed at his situation, being benumbed with cold. I instantly wrapped my great coat about him, took him under my arm, and preventing him with difficulty from sliding down the steep and icy sides of the mountain, descended to a hollow part where the tempest beat with less violence. There he directed me by signs, (for he could not speak, his mouth and hands being frost-bitten) to rub them with snow and ice; which I did, and happily, they soon produced the desired effect. We then proceeded at random, for in our confusion we had, as we thought, lost the way; but providentially came precisely to the place from which we began the ascent, where we found our miserable guide, who had left us near the summit, quite exhausted, and in tears. We gladly remounted our mules, and about nine o'clock arrived at this convent, where we found a good supper, and two excellent beds—What luxury after such peril and fatigue!

Catania, Syracuse, Terra Nuova, Trapani, and Palermo, were visited and described, but nothing new struck us. Returning to the continent,

gent, Mr. Watkins visited Rome, Loretto, Bologna, Padua, Venice, and then embarked for Constantinople, calling at Corfu, Zante, Melos, &c.

From Constantinople he proceeded to Smyrna, Athens, Eleusis, Corinth, Patres, and by sea to Raguse, and back to Venice, Padua, Verona.

Mr. Watkins gives the following description of Zante—

Zante is the most valuable, though not the most extensive of the few Greek islands which the republic still retains. There are but few ships bound to the Adriatic that do not touch here, some of them take in a cargo of currants. This rich and wholesome article of consumption is the dried fruit of grapes, which are peculiar to a few of these islands, and to part of the Moræa. They are as inferior in size as (in my opinion) superior in flavour to all other; indeed I think them the most delicious I ever tasted. There are two sorts,—the black and the purple, both of which are now ripe; but the inhabitants do not gather them till August; when they are exposed to the sun till dried, then put into hogheads and trodden down by naked feet to compress and to preserve them the better. Zante freights six or seven ships annually, and Cephalonia four, the greater number of which are English.

The day after our arrival, we were visited by the Procurator Eino, admiral of the fleet, whose name is frequently mentioned in the London papers: by the Provéditor, or governor of Zante, and by all the foreign consuls of the island; among whom was Mr. Serjeant, the English consul—a gentleman who has shewn me much attention. From him I learnt, that the last of our countrymen who visited this island, was that great philanthropist Mr. Howard, whose simplicity of manners and extreme abstinence (for he subsisted on bread, fruits, and tea) astonished all who knew him. They were surprised that a man of his fortune should come in a merchantship without even a servant to attend him. I told them that he consulted the benefit of mankind more than his own convenience, but they had not virtue enough to comprehend me; indeed the common people are the most vindictive and sanguinary wretches that ever existed, as scarce a week passes without murder. But the frequency of this crime should, in a great measure, be attributed to a feeble and corrupt government. There are at Venice hords of indigent nobility called Barnabotti, who, being too poor to exist at home, are, when armed with authority by the Senate, let loose upon the defenceless

inhabitants of their cities in Dalmatia, and islands of the Adriatic. From these venal despots every thing within their power is to be obtained by a bribe, and nothing without it: so that their decisions in civil causes are purchased, and assassination too has its price. The Provéditor of this island is not indeed a Barnabotto, but he has not fortitude, nor perhaps virtue enough to correct the system of government pursued by his predecessors, which is worse than can be well imagined. The town of Zante is narrow and long, extending itself on the sea shore. Behind it is a steep hill, the summit of which has a fortress or castle in ruins. The bay is capacious, but so much exposed to the north and north-east winds, as to be extremely dangerous for vessels. We are now lying in the middle of seven line of battle ships. You will not imagine that I, who am so partial to Venice, would be prejudiced against its fleet, when I tell you, that although the Venetians possess fourteen sail of the line, besides frigates, of which they boast immoderately, their navy is most despicable; and in reality, it is impossible to be otherwise, as long as the present defective mode of nautical education, and the present invidious distinction between their officers, subsist. None but noble Venetians can have the command of a ship; and only four years service are required to qualify them for the charge. Their inability in this important station would be too detrimental to the interest of the republic, if it were not for the experience of the masters (*I capitani*) who are no other than the nurses of the governors or commanders. These men are taken from merchantships for the purpose; and are generally good pilots in the Mediterranean. The navy is composed of ships and galleys: the captains of the latter, though now become useless, take precedence of the former, being of prior establishment. Their uniform is scarlet, the other blue and white, like ours. You will naturally suppose, that the officers of the men of war being such as I have described them, the crews can be no other than a poor, cowardly, undisciplined banditti, for so they are. On board the Galatea they continually refuse obedience to the orders of their superiors, and are kept from mutiny by a company of Ekeleonian soldiers stationed on the quarter deck. But I have said more than enough upon this subject, I will change it for a better. When I got up on the morning of our arrival, I beheld the object I most desired to see, I beheld, oh let me write it in Italics, *the main Land of Greece—the Peloponnesus*; and never did the appearance of any country give more delight. As I gazed upon the coast of Elis not many miles from that sacred place in which the olympic games, the nurse of Grecian virtue

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and enterprise, were celebrated, the melancholy reflection of its departed glory succeeded the joy I at first felt. I looked steadfastly upon it, my remembrance made my sorrow insupportable, and I burst into tears. No man ever knew the Greeks who did not admire them above all other people: how then could I behold their country without lamenting the loss of such inhabitants? This and the adjacent islands were governed by Ulysses, and furnished their quota of ships and troops for the Trojan expedition.

Constantinople and its customs have been so often described, that we shall not give any extract from it, although Mr. Watkins has been very copious in his description; but of Athens we shall copy from him largely.

Though numerous the injuries of time, of nature, of war, and of accidents, which Athens has suffered, its antiquities are still extant as monuments of its superior grandeur and beauty over all the cities that ever existed. High upon a rock, to which there is no possible access but by the western end, are the ruins of the Acropolis. Cecrops chose it as a place of retreat and defence for those inhabitants of Attica whom he had collected from the surrounding villages, &c. I cannot possibly imagine any thing of the kind more magnificent than its Propylæa or vestibule. It was built by Pericles, who coated the front and steps with white polished marble. Its five gates still remain, but the largest or central is the only one not filled up. Between them are doric pilasters, which contribute much to the beauty of their appearance. Indeed to behold this edifice without the liveliest sensations of admiration and pleasure, even as it now is, seems to me impossible, conceive then what it must have been when embellished by the sculpture of Phidias, and unimpaired. The first object that meets the eye on passing it is the temple of Minerva, called *Parthenon* in honour of her virginity, and from its dimension of a hundred feet in width *Ecatompedon*. It was held in the highest veneration by the Athenians, as the supposed habitation of their tutelary deity, whose statue it contained. In this celebrated image, which was made of gold and ivory, 36 cubits in height, Phidias displayed all his art. When the Persians took possession of this city, they burnt the Parthenon with the other temples, and I might say fortunately, as it happened at a period but little antecedent to the time when the polite arts had attained to perfection; when Pericles with the aid of

Phidias, Callicrates and Ictinus rebuilt it. The emperor Hadrian, whose attachment to Athens was continually displayed in his munificence, repaired it so effectually, that it continued almost entire from his reign to 1687, when unfortunately a bomb fired from the camp of Morosini, the Venetian general who besieged Athens, fell upon and destroyed the roof. Its decay since that accident has been rapid, and its richest ornaments pillaged. It was raised on a base of six steps: its peristyle had forty-six columns—eight channelled in each front, and fifteen plain at the sides. They are forty-one feet and a half in height, and six in diameter. Its mutilated entablature represents battles between the Athenians and Centaurs, with religious ceremonies, processions, &c. On the posticus was sculptured the birth of Minerva. It is lamentable to behold the ravages that travellers have made upon the inimitable reliquies of this and the other temples. With difficulty I discover what they represent, as not a figure is entire. The noblest sculpture of Athens that has escaped the injuries of time, &c. is now scattered over Europe, and lodged in the cabinets of nations, whose barbarous ancestors were not known even by name to the polished inhabitants of Greece. The Parthenon was the principal temple of the Acropolis, and generally the most admired; but I think with little reason, as that of Neptune named *Erechtheus*, is of far more elegant, if of less noble architecture. It is like the Apollo of the Belvedere, the unrivalled masterpiece of its kind. When I had seen the Corinthian temple at Nismes called *La Maison Quarrée*, I despaired of ever again beholding a building that would afford me such comfort in the contemplation of it. In Italy and Sicily I found nothing comparable with it, but on turning from the Parthenon how great was my astonishment and delight to behold a model of Ionic structure, than which nothing could be more simple, and yet more sublime! It is impossible to mistake it from the description of Pausanias who calls it *diploun Oiechema*—a double building, the two parts of it being joined together at right angles. The one is dedicated to Neptune or *Erechtheus*, and the other to Minerva Polias—Protectress of the citadel. By their junction the Athenians symbolized the reconciliation of these deities after their contest for naming Athens. In the former was the salt spring produced by a blow of Neptune's trident: in the latter the olive tree—Minerva's more profitable gift, and her image said to have fallen from heaven, which was guarded by a serpent of uncommon size called *oicouros Ophis*, the superstitious Pausanias knew not whether to receive or reject this miraculous story. Adjoining to the

the Polias is a small temple erected in honour of Pandrosos---the faithful daughter of Cecrops. To her and her two sisters Herse and Aglauros, Minerva entrusted a chest which contained the infant Erichtheus guarded by a serpent, with strict and solemn injunction not to examine its contents. The curiosity of the two elder prevailed over every other consideration, and induced them to open it, when they were immediately rendered frantic and threw themselves over a precipice. Pandrosos was true to her charge, and therefore worshipped jointly with Minerva: so that when a heifer was sacrificed to the goddess, it was accompanied with a sheep to her. The order of architecture in this temple is (I believe) no where to be found but here; its entablature being supported by five female figures (originally six) called Cariatides instead of columns. As this building was constructed about fifty years after the sack of Athens by the Persians, it is conjectured, and with all probability, that the order was designed as a satire upon Artemisia queen of Halicarnassus in Caria; who, though in origin a Greek, assisted the Persian with a fleet against her mother-country. The Cariatides are admirably finished, and their robes extremely graceful, as is also their head drifs. These figures have been spelled Caryatides from a supposition that they were intended to represent women of Carya in Peloponnesus, a city in league with the Persians; but this is a weak conjecture, as their Asiatic dress alone will prove the contrary. The Pandrosium contained Minerva's olive tree called *Pagcepher* from its branches bending downwards when they had grown up to the roof. These are the only remains of the Acropolis, the foundations of the walls excepted. I visit the divine Eretheum every day, and am only fearful that the barbarian musulmans who garrison the citadel will suspect me of some design against it, and by exclusion, debar me of the most exquisite pleasure I can receive at Athens.

We have already said, we could not find much either to blame or praise. One of the greatest faults, is a very common one with our modern travellers, that is, to introduce their accounts of the places they visit by an historical deduction; a method which pays no great compliment to their readers, for they seldom introduce any thing but what every person of education is acquainted with. Mr. Watkins's style is however pleasing, and some of his descriptions animated,

AN ENQUIRY CONCERNING POLITICAL JUSTICE, AND ITS INFLUENCE ON GENERAL VIRTUE AND HAPPINESS. By William Godwin. 2 Vol. 4to. London, 1793.

Mr. Godwin is well known in the literary and political worlds, and great expectations have been formed by his friends of this work. In his preface he observes, that works of an elementary kind, that treat of the principles of science, are held in great estimation; and that these are superseded by subsequent works, as larger and more extended views of these sciences open: it would therefore be strange, if something of the kind was not to appear in politics, after the light which has been thrown on that subject by the recent discussions of America and France.

This work originated, our author says, in his mind, from a conviction of the unavoidable corruption of monarchy, and which arose from the reading of the Latin historians, Swift, Rousseau, Helvetius, and the *Système de la Nature*. He began the composition of it in May 1791, and has laboured unremittingly at it ever since. He confesses he has advanced some ideas entirely new, and with great boldness; and expresses some apprehensions, whether the publication may not draw on him some angry prosecution.

Book I. is employed on the importance of political institutions; he examines the opinions of men on that head, and justly concludes, that the science of politics is highly important, and worthy the attention of all. He then adverts to the frequency of war, both among the ancients and moderns, and introduces Swift's admirable ridicule on the causes of war. (Gulliver, part IV. c. I.) Mr. Godwin then proceeds, Book I. Chap. III. to some metaphysical disquisitions respecting innate principles, and justly concludes, that the moral qualities of men, are the produce of the impressions made upon

upon them, and that there is in them no original propensity to evil.

There are, he observes, (chap. IV.) three principal causes of moral improvement—*Literature*, of the advantages arising from which he speaks highly; *Education*, which, in the common acceptation of the word, he thinks very inefficacious; and *Political Justice*. The influence of political institutions, he asserts, in the present state of the world, does not operate to the advantage of mankind; which he proceeds to exemplify. Robbery and fraud, the two great vices of society, arise from the great inequality of property, by which vast numbers are deprived of every accommodation that can render life tolerable; from the ostentation of the rich, which, by the contrast, points out to the poor man, and makes him feel with greater poignancy his own miseries; and, from their tyranny, insolence and usurpation: all which causes are rendered permanent by various circumstances, which he enumerates.

In chapter VI. our author proceeds to prove that human inventions are capable of perpetual improvements, and answers the objections raised to these principles from moral and physical causes, from national character, and from the influence of luxury. In this part he is too diffuse for us to follow him, but his reasoning is strong, and his positions well founded. He asserts with great justice, that every people are capable of enjoying liberty, and that the real and only enemies of liberty are the higher orders, who profit by the slavery of their fellow-creatures.

In the second book he proceeds to develop the principles of society, to treat of justice, suicide, duty, and of the equality of mankind, which, he says, is either physical or moral; and this leads to his fifth chapter, or the *Rights of Man*, and of the exercise of private judgement. This book is long, but is only preparatory to his main object.

Vol. X,

The principles of political government occupy the third book; of this he enquires into the various systems of political writers, the first class of which assert that government is founded in *political strength*, the second that it is *jure divino*, and the third, that it arises from the *social contract*. All which hypotheses he rejects, and proceeds to enquire into what he conceives to be the true foundation, and says, "that as government is a transaction in the name, and for the benefit of the whole, every member of the community ought to have some share in the administration; and this necessarily, in extended States, produces a *delegation of power*, or *general representation*."

This leads to the scene of legislation, to the subject of obedience, and to the various forms of government. In this part he is of opinion, that simplicity is chiefly to be desired, and that in any improvement in the form of government, the quantity and period must be determined by the degree of knowledge existing in a country.

Book IV. contains various miscellaneous principles; as, Of resistance, in which he justly observes, that force should rarely be applied, and only where there is a small prospect of success, or where the object is essential. Reasoning, he observes, is the legitimate mode of revolutions, and the only good mode of effecting them; here too persuasion is the proper instrument. Of political associations; of the species of reform to be desired; of tyranny, and of the cultivation of truth; of sincerity; and he concludes this volume with the chapter on the tendency of virtue.

In this vast circuit, Mr. Godwin has, as he observes, advanced many things new, and many which, in the present humour of the people of this nation, will be thought romantic, especially those who are, or pretend to be, enamoured of the English constitution. His hatred of monarchy is great, but his abhorrence

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of aristocracy is much greater, and we think much more just, since we know not any great injury even a bad king can do his people, but by the help of an aristocracy. Mr. Godwin will appear, from what we have said, to be a warm, and, we must confess, a very persuasive advocate for a pure democracy.

His second volume proceeds to enter into a discussion of the various systems of government, an account of which we shall reserve for our next Magazine.

AN HISTORICAL JOURNAL OF THE TRANSACTIONS OF PORT JACKSON AND NORFOLK ISLAND; *with the Discoveries which have been made in New South Wales, and in the Southern Ocean, since the Publication of Phillips's Voyage. Compiled from official Papers, by John Hunter, Esq. With Plates.* 4to. London, 1793.

Much has been written respecting the new settlements at Botany Bay, yet we are not without hopes of extracting from this volume something which may be new to our readers. We shall be the more copious in our review, as several of our correspondents have wished for information respecting this settlement, and we have not before been able to gratify them as we would wish.

The Sirius, of 20 guns, and Supply tender, were appointed to convey the first fleet of transports to Botany Bay. To the former ship Mr. Hunter was appointed second captain, with a commission to command her during the absence of Captain Phillips. The fleet sailed from the Mother-bank, May 12, 1787, and consisted of the above ships, six transports, having 600 males, and 200 females, on board, and 160 marines, and three storeships.

Having touched at Teneriffe to refresh the fleet, it sailed afterwards to Rio Janiero; in this part of the voyage, the whole fleet buried only

sixteen persons. The fleet then sailed for the Cape of Good Hope, where having laid in a quantity of live stock, they stretched away for their destined port. Soon after they left the Cape, Capt. Phillips left them, and proceeded singly in the Supply. The Supply reached Botany Bay the 18th, and the rest of the fleet the 19th and 20th of January, 1788.

At Botany Bay they found nothing to recommend it as a place to form an infant settlement; therefore they proceeded to examine the coast to the northward, and fixed on a place named by Capt. Cook, Port Jackson. Just as they were getting under sail, two large ships under French colours appeared in the offing, which proved to be the Bouffole and Astrolabe, employed on discoveries.

The English arrived all safe at the destined port, and had frequent interviews with the natives, whom they found to be numerous, lively, and inquisitive, but go entirely naked, nor have they a building of any kind to shelter them: they live chiefly on what the sea affords.

The settlement was immediately begun, and Lieut. King, with six men and a few convicts, embarked for Norfolk Island. On their voyage thither, in lat. $31^{\circ} 36'$ south, and about 140 leagues to the eastward of the coast of New Holland, they fell in with a small island, which was named Lord Howe's Island. In March they began to build huts and barracks for the winter.

On a cove of Port Jackson, named Sydney Cove, Governor Phillips fixed his residence. Some of the convicts, who strayed from the settlement, were found murdered by the natives; and as the winter approached, these latter appeared in a miserable and starving condition. The transports having delivered their ladings, sailed for England, some of them calling at China in their way home.

The governor, in September, dispatched

patched Capt. Hunter in the *Sirius* to the Cape of Good Hope, to procure provisions. This proved a very disagreeable voyage at that season. Capt. Hunter determined to proceed to the eastward, and round Cape Horn; and amidst continued gales of wind, arrived at the Cape of Good Hope on the 1st of January, 1789; here Capt. Hunter was informed that two of the transports from Botany Bay had arrived in great distress. Having taken on board twelve months provisions for the settlement, he sailed back again, and on the 9th of May anchored in Sydney Cove.

On Mr. Hunter's return, he found one of the natives at the English settlement, who had been taken by stratagem; but having received good treatment, appeared well satisfied with his situation. The small-pox had, however, broke out among the natives, and great numbers of them died in a miserable manner; and several of the settlers, Capt. Hunter was informed, had been lost in the woods, supposed to have been killed by the natives. He found a place at the head of the harbour cleared, and formed into a farm, called Rose Hill; but there was a great want of fresh water, and the corn harvest yielded very bad.

Governor Phillips, Capt. Hunter, and other officers, made many excursions up and cross the country, in which they parted from, and nearly lost, some of their companions; and on their return, Capt. Hunter took a survey of Broken Bay and Botany Bay, which he describes, and of which he has given a good chart.

In Jan. 1790, no ship being arrived from Europe with provisions, the officers began to be uneasy; and to ease the settlement, the governor determined to dispatch the *Sirius* and Supply to Norfolk Island with one company of marines, and 186 convicts; where, after having landed them, the *Sirius* was wrecked, but the principal part of the provisions and bread was saved. The situation

of this infant colony was now very critical; short of provisions, and in no certainty of receiving a supply soon, they must have been brought to great distress, but they fortunately gained a large supply of birds, which settled every night on an elevated part of the island. They, however, suffered much; nor were they relieved till the 7th of August, when two transports with provisions, and 200 more convicts, arrived, and brought the intelligence that five ships and 980 convicts had arrived at Port Jackson. They now heard of the unhappy fate of the *Guardian*.

The surf beats all round this island with great violence, and it is very difficult to find a good landing; a boat, employed in bringing people from one of the ships, was lost, and several persons perished. In Jan. 1791, the *Supply* and a Dutch snow, laden with provisions, arrived; in which ships Captain Hunter and his people returned to Port Jackson, where the governor entered into a contract with the master of the Dutch snow to carry the officers and company of the *Sirius* to England.

Captain Hunter inserts here a short account of Norfolk Island.

On his return to Port Jackson, he found great improvements made at Rose Hill; a considerable town laid out, many buildings erected, and roads cut, with about 263 acres of land cleared for corn; but he seems to have no great opinion of the soil, and says it will require much manure, much dressing, and good farmers to manage it; and from what happened, while Capt. Hunter was there, he thinks it will be often subject to droughts; but says, both this place and Norfolk Island are healthy. The natives now became better acquainted with the English, and some of them visited the governor. But in an excursion made into the country, hostilities commenced, and the governor was wounded with a spear. Capt. Hunter embarked with his officers and men on board the Dutch snow,

snow, the 27th of March, 1791, and arrived at Batavia, Sept. 27, where he purchased the snow, and arrived safe in her in England.

At the end of this journal, our author inserts a letter to the Lords of the Admiralty, containing directions for sailing from New South Wales to England.



After the voyage of Capt. Hunter, Lieut. King's journal is inserted. This officer, after having assisted in the settlement of Port Jackson, was directed to proceed, with two officers, four men, and fifteen convicts, nine male, and six female, to Norfolk Island, and arrived there on the 29th of February, 1788, but were until the 3d of March before they could find a place proper to land at. Having fixed on a spot near a rivulet of water for the settlement, Lieut. King finding the island over-run with wood and underwood, immediately set the people to work to clear the land, sow seeds, &c. They fortunately found a supply of turtle, and on a survey, discovered some of the flax plants, mentioned by Capt. Cook. By the 1st of April, the seeds, procured at the Cape of Good Hope, were out of the ground, and likely to do well, but those brought from England, in general, failed. The men were employed in building a store-house; and finding the plants blighted by a strong south-west wind, Mr. King was obliged to remove his garden-ground to a place covered by a mount.

The settlement was now brought into some order; some men were employed in clearing a road, others in building a house for the governor, and huts for the men. The rats and grub-worm became very troublesome to them; most of the ewes brought to the island died, and several of the people were poisoned by eating some beans, which resembled the Windsor bean, but were restored by the use of sweet

oil. Our settlers found an ample supply of fish in the bays round the island, and a great number of pigeons, so tame, that they were knocked down with sticks.

In May the rainy season began to set in, but not before the men were well sheltered. Mr. King found it necessary to put the people on short allowance of bread and flour, on which they continued till the 27th of July, when the Supply arrived with provisions, seeds, and tools, for the settlement. In endeavouring to get the stores on shore, a boat was overset by a heavy surf, and four people drowned.

In October the weather began to grow warm again, gales of wind were less frequent, and landing became safer. On the 13th of October, a ship arrived with a serjeant and six marines, two gardeners, and thirty-two convicts. The ship which brought them was sent back with as much useful timber as could be procured, for the service of the settlement of Port Jackson. The number of settlers now on the island were sixteen freemen, forty-six convicts, and two children; and Mr. King received orders by the last ship from Governor Phillips, to allot one or two acres of land to each convict, who had behaved well, for his own use. On the 8th of January, 1789, a male child was born, being the first born on that island, and was named Norfolk.

Soon after, Mr. King was informed of a conspiracy among the convicts to seize him and his officers, to surprize the next vessel that should come there, and make their escape; and some of them were severely punished. On the 26th of February they experienced a most dreadful hurricane, attended with a heavy rain, and lasted from midnight till noon. Pines and oak trees, of the largest size, were blown down every instant, and thrown a considerable distance from the place where they grew: the settlement received great damage, much of the

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live stock was killed, and the gardens in general destroyed.

The Supply arrived with twenty-seven more convicts, and made the number on the island ninety-four. Thefts now became very frequent, and the aggressors were detected with difficulty. A convict, whose time was expired, was permitted to work for himself. In June, the Supply arrived again with a lieutenant and fourteen marines. One of the seamen of the *Sirius* was permitted to become a settler; and in January, 1790, the Supply brought twenty-two more convicts. In March she returned again, accompanied by the *Sirius*, which ship, as we have before related, was unfortunately lost there. They brought with them Lieut. Ross, who took command of the island; and Mr. King embarked, leaving on the island ninety free persons, one hundred and ninety-one male, and one hundred female convicts; and thirty-seven children. Mr. King concludes his journal with an account of the improvements made at Port Jackson since he left it, and a journal of his voyage to England.

We are next presented with an account of the *Lady Juliana* transport, which arrived at Port Jackson the 3d of June, 1790. She

found the settlement much distressed by the disappointment occasioned from the loss of the *Guardian*. Three other transports arrived soon after, bringing the stores and convicts saved out of the *Guardian*.

In July, 1790, the number of convicts at Sydney Cove was seven hundred and twenty-nine, at Rose Hill, one hundred and seventy-nine. The number of deaths, in the year 1790, was one hundred and fifty-six, including four executed, and six drowned.

On the 21st of September, 1791, the *Gorgon* arrived with provision stores, and live stock, seeds, fruit-trees, and thirty male convicts. The *Queen* transport arrived soon after from Ireland, with provisions and one hundred and forty-seven convicts; and the *Active* transport, with one hundred and fifty-four convicts: these people arrived sickly, and worn out with confinement. In the whole, on board the *Gorgon* and ten transports, near nine hundred convicts arrived. Some of the transports had been fitted for the whale fishery, and as soon as they had delivered their cargoes, they sailed again on that business. This narrative concludes in December 1791.

POLITICAL REGISTER.

Parliamentary Debates, continued.

THE House of Lords met on Monday, Jan. 29, 1793, agreeably to adjournment, when the following message was brought from the king by the Earl of Stafford.

“GEORGE R.

“His majesty has given directions for laying before the House of Lords, copies of several papers which have been received from M. Chauvelin, late minister plenipotentiary from the most christian king, by his majesty’s secretary of state for foreign affairs, and of the answers returned there to; and likewise copy of an order

“made by his majesty in council, and transmitted by his majesty’s commands to the said M. Chauvelin, in consequence of the accounts of the atrocious and recently perpetrated at Paris.

“In the present situation of affairs, his majesty thinks it indispensably necessary to make a further augmentation of his forces by sea and land, and relies on the known affection and zeal of the House of Lords, to enable his majesty to take the most effectual measures in the present important conjuncture, for maintaining the security and rights of his own dominions,

"minions, for supporting his allies, and for opposing views of aggrandisement and ambition on the part of France, which would be at all times dangerous to the general interests of Europe, but are peculiarly so, when connected with the propagation of principles which lead to the violation of the most sacred duties, and are utterly subversive of the peace and order of all civil society. G. R."

Lord Stafford, at the same time, presented several papers and letters, copies of what had passed between Lord Grenville and M. Chauvelin, and moved that they should be taken into consideration on Wednesday following.

The like message was delivered by Mr. Dundas in the House of Commons; on which Mr. Pitt observed, that he should reserve what he had to say until the house should take the communication into consideration. After some altercation between Mr. Pitt, Lord Wycombe, and Mr. Fox, the house agreed to consider of the message on Thursday.

This business in the House of Lords was postponed on account of the papers not being printed; and the like motion of adjournment was made in the Commons.

On Friday, Feb. 1, Lord Lauderdale rose to move for certain papers, tending to explain the true state of the question between Great Britain and France. He first wished to know if any requisition had been made by the United States of Holland on the subject of the Scheldt. Secondly, What correspondence had passed between Lord Grenville and M. Chauvelin, between July and November. Thirdly, If any offer had been made by the executive council of France to our minister at the Hague. And, fourthly, What had passed between the British ministers and any other agent of France. All which papers he moved for. To which Lord Grenville objected, as not useful to the discus-

sion of the day. Holland, he said, had applied for aid. There was no papers in office of any correspondence whatever on the affairs of France, other than those on the table. He had conversed with M. Chauvelin, and had stated to him a disposition in the government to correspond with him, but not in an official way. As to the correspondence at the Hague, there would be a great impropriety in disclosing it. The motions being negatived, Lord Grenville rose to move the consideration of the king's message. He entered on the business of the king of France's execution, declared his abhorrence of the act, and endeavoured to shew the necessity we were under of putting a check to the progress of French principles. After touching on various other points, he concluded with moving an address in the usual style.

Earl Stanhope said he rose on one of the most important occasions he ever witnessed, to declare his opinion, that the war now beginning and pregnant with ruin to England, was brought on by the ministers, provoked by no aggression. That Great Britain had neither been injured or insulted, and every man of humanity ought to exert himself to avert the threatened evil, which might yet be avoided, if ministers would shake off false pretences, and act openly. The real motive of the war was a dislike to the principles of the French revolution; but would war extinguish them? How were we to oppose a people, who had an army of 100,000 men? He concluded with moving an amendment to the address, praying his majesty to exert every means to avert from this country the calamities of a war.

Lord Carlisle opposed the amendment, as we did not know with whom to treat, and he considered the war as a war of just defence. Lords Darnley, Porchester, and Kinnoul also opposed it. In support of the amendment, Lord

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Lauderdale rose. He spoke with great severity of the act lately committed in France, but attributed it to the sanguinary manifesto of the Duke of Brunswick, which had inflamed the passions of the multitude. He had threatened to destroy Paris, and exterminate all who dared to oppose this arrogance of despotism. Ministers, he said, had endeavoured to inflame the minds of the people here against France; and when he heard the intemperate language of Mr. Burke and Mr. Windham, could he wonder at the French being exasperated? With respect to our abilities to carry on the war, where could we find resources, or where could we make an attack? If we wanted their West India islands, they were not anxious to retain them. His lordship concluded with conjuring ministers to reflect on the horrors into which they were likely to plunge their country.

Lord Stormont and the Lord Chancellor spoke on the other side, and Lord Lansdowne in favour of the amendment; which being negatived without a division, the address passed.

In the House of Commons the like motion for papers was made by Mr. Grey, and met the same fate; after which Mr. Pitt began a solemn appeal to the feelings of the house on the late tragical event in France. He then proceeded to censure the principles promulgated in that country, which, he said, were sown in countries where their armies could not reach, and went over in detail the transactions which had brought on the present state of affairs; after which he moved an address similar to the message. Mr. Fox and others opposed it on nearly the same grounds as it was combated in the House of Lords; after which the address was voted without a division.

On Monday, Feb. 4, the house resolved that an additional number

of 20,000 seamen should be granted for the year 1793.

On Tuesday, Feb. 5, the judges, according to order, attended to deliver their opinions upon the question referred to them in the last session: "whether the instrument in question be a writ sufficient in law to certify, according to the statute of the 6th of Queen Anne, that Francis Viscount Dumblain, on the 14th day of June, in the year of our Lord 1790, appeared in chancery, in open court, and took and subscribed the oaths and declaration therein mentioned?" The chief baron declared the unanimous opinion of the judges to be in the affirmative.

Information having been received, that the French executive council had declared war against Great Britain and Holland, on Monday, Feb. 11, Lord Grenville delivered a message from his majesty, which was read, and is as follows.

"G. R.

"His majesty thinks proper to acquaint the House of Lords, that the assembly now exercising the powers of government in France have, without previous notice, directed acts of hostility to be committed against the persons and property of his majesty's subjects in breach of the law of nations, and of the most positive stipulations of treaty, and have since, on the most groundless pretences, actually declared war against his majesty and the united provinces. Under the circumstances of this wanton and unprovoked aggression, his majesty has taken the necessary steps to maintain the honour of his crown, and to vindicate the rights of his people; and his majesty relies with confidence on the firm and effectual support of the House of Lords, and on the zealous exertions of a brave and loyal people, in prosecuting a just and necessary war; and in endeavouring, under the blessing

blessing of providence, to oppose an effectual barrier to the further progress of a system which strikes at the security and peace of all independent nations, and is pursued in open defiance of every principle of moderation, good faith, humanity, and justice.

"In a cause of such general concern, his majesty has every reason to hope for the cordial co-operation of those powers who are united with his majesty by the ties of alliance, or who feel an interest in preventing the extension of anarchy and confusion, and in contributing to the security and tranquillity of Europe. G. R."

The house ordered the message to be taken into consideration on the morrow.

On which day, when the attendance of peers was uncommonly numerous, Lord Grenville, in a speech of considerable length, vindicated the conduct of ministers in entering upon a war, which he stated to be unavoidable, and insisted that the French were the aggressors. In the course of his speech, his lordship drew a comparison between the different state and resources of the two countries, in which he gave, in every respect, a decided superiority to Great Britain, and threw out some sarcasms on the French system of finance, particularly on their unbounded creation of assignats, and the resources which they boasted for further emissions of them. He concluded by moving an address of thanks and support to his majesty.

The Duke of Portland rose to second the motion. Though war, he said, was pregnant with calamities, he thought it was more dangerous for this country to continue at peace, if our inactivity tended to encourage the propagation of French principles; principles which he considered as subversive of all government and order, and he was therefore now ready to support his

majesty's ministers in what he conceived to be a necessary war.

Lords Stanhope, Lauderdale, and the Marquis of Lansdowne opposed the address, and contended that we were the aggressors. Some other noble lords spoke on the side of ministry; after which the address passed.

The like message having been delivered to the House of Commons, on Tuesday, Feb. 12, Mr. Pitt, in a very brilliant and animated speech, defended the principles of the war in which we were about to engage, as founded in justice and sound policy. He contended that the French were the aggressors, and that it was necessary to prescribe limits to the unjust usurpations and boundless ambition of the French. And; firmly persuaded that these were the sentiments of the people of this country, he should move, that an humble address be presented to his majesty; which was, as usual, an echo of the message.

Mr. Fox combated the argument of Mr. Pitt, with his usual abilities, in a speech of great length, and insisted that the war was unnecessary, unjust, and impolitic.

Many other members spoke, after which Mr. Pitt's motion was carried without a division.

Notwithstanding these repeated defeats, the minority resolved to make one more attempt to preserve peace to their country, and, on Monday the 18th, Mr. Fox, after a long speech, moved a string of resolutions, importing that it was neither for the honour nor the interest of this country, that a war should be entered into for the sake of regulating the internal government of France; that on no account was war justifiable, except preceded by negotiation; that a proper train of negotiation was not adopted by ministers, nor did they suggest a mode of redress; and concluding with general terms of censure on the conduct of ministers in our system

system of foreign politics, particularly relative to Poland, &c.

A debate then took place, in which Mr. Burke spoke a considerable time in answer to Mr. Fox; and on the question being put, the house divided, when the numbers were, for the motion 44, against it 270.

We have been thus short in our account of these important debates, because, on Thursday the 21st, Mr. Grey, after a very short preface, moved a string of resolutions, evidently designed to serve as a general protest against the war, and which contains the substance of all the reasoning which had been used on the subject. They were—

That a humble address be presented to his majesty, to assure his majesty that his faithful Commons, animated by a sincere and dutiful attachment to his person and family, and to the excellent constitution of this kingdom, as well as by an ardent zeal for the interest and honour of the nation, will at all times be ready to support his majesty in any measures which a due observance of the faith of treaties, the dignity of his crown, or the security of his dominions, may compel him to undertake.

That feeling the most earnest solicitude to avert from our country the calamities of war, by every means consistent with honour and with safety, we expressed to his majesty, at the opening of the present session, “our sense of the temper and prudence which had induced his majesty to observe a strict neutrality with respect to the war on the continent, and uniformly to abstain from any interference in the internal affairs of France;” and our hope that the steps his majesty had taken would have the happy tendency “to render a firm and temperate conduct effectual for preserving the blessings of peace.”

That, with the deepest concern, we now find ourselves obliged to relinquish that hope, without any evidence having been produced to satisfy us that his majesty's minister's have made such efforts as it was their duty to make, and as, by his majesty's most gracious speech, we were taught to expect, for the preservation of peace:—It is no less the resolution than the duty of his majesty's faithful Commons to second his efforts in the war thus fatally commenced, so long as it shall continue; but we deem it a duty equally incumbent upon us to solicit his majesty's attention to those reasons or pretexts, by which his servants have laboured to justify a conduct on their

part which we cannot but consider as having contributed, in a great measure, to produce the present rupture.

Various grounds of hostility against France have been stated, but none that appeared to us to have constituted such an urgent and imperious case of necessity as left no room for accommodation, and made war unavoidable. The government of France has been accused of having violated the law of nations, and the stipulations of existing treaties, by an attempt to deprive the Republic of the United Provinces of the exclusive navigation of the Scheldt. No evidence, however, has been offered to convince us that this exclusive navigation was, either in itself or in the estimation of those who were alone interested in preserving it, of such importance as to justify a determination in our government to break with France on that account. If, in fact, the States General had shewn a disposition to defend their right by force of arms, it might have been an instance of the truest friendship to have suggested to them, for their serious consideration, how far the assertion of this unprofitable claim might, in the present circumstances of Europe, tend to bring into hazard the most essential interests of the Republic. But when, on the contrary, it has been acknowledged that no requisition on this subject was made to his majesty, on the part of the States General, we are at a loss to comprehend on what grounds of right or propriety we take the lead in asserting a claim, in which we are not principals, and in which the principal party has not, as far as we know, thought it prudent or necessary to call for our interposition.

We must further remark, that the point in dispute seemed to us to have been relieved from a material part of its difficulty, by the declaration of the minister of foreign affairs in France, that the French nation gave up all pretensions to determine the question of the future navigation of the Scheldt. Whether the terms of this declaration were perfectly satisfactory or not, they at least left the question open to pacific negotiation; in which the intrinsic value of the object, to any of the parties concerned in it, might have been coolly and impartially weighed against the consequences, to which all of them might be exposed by attempting to maintain it by force of arms.

We have been called upon to resist views of conquest and aggrandizement entertained by the government of France; “at all times dangerous to the general interests of Europe, but” asserted to be “peculiarly so, when connected with the propagation of principles, which lead to the violation of the most sacred duties, and are utterly subversive of the peace and order of all civil society.”

We admit, that it is the interest and duty of every member of the commonwealth of Europe to support the established system, and distribution of power among the independent sovereignties, which actually subsist, and to prevent the aggrandizement of any state, especially the most powerful, at the expence of any other; and, for the honour of his majesty's councils, we do most earnestly wish, that his ministers had manifested a just sense of the importance of the principle to which they now appeal, in the course of late events, which seemed to us to threaten its entire destruction.

When Poland was beginning to recover from the long calamities of anarchy, combined with oppression; after she had established an hereditary and limited monarchy like our own, and was peaceably employed in settling her internal government, his majesty's ministers, with apparent indifference and unconcern, have seen her become the victim of the most unprovoked and unprincipled invasion; her territory over-run, her free constitution subverted, her national independence annihilated, and the general principles of the security of nations wounded through her side. With all these evils was France soon after threatened, and with the same appearance either of supine indifference, or of secret approbation, his majesty's ministers beheld the armies of other powers (in evident concert with the oppressor of Poland) advancing to the invasion and subjugation of France, and the march of those armies distinguished from the ordinary hostilities of civilized nations, by manifestoes, which, if their principles and menaces had been carried into practice, must have inevitably produced the "return of that ferocity and barbarism in war, which a beneficent religion, and enlightened manners, and true military honour, have for a long time banished from the christian world."

No effort appears to have been made to check the progress of these invading armies. His majesty's ministers, under a pretended respect for the rights and independence of other sovereigns, thought fit at that time, to refuse even the interposition of his majesty's councils and good offices, to save so great and important a portion of Europe from falling under the dominion of a foreign power. But no sooner, by an ever memorable reverse of fortune, had France repulsed her invaders, and carried her arms into their territory, than his majesty's ministers, laying aside that collusive indifference which had marked their conduct during the invasion of France, began to express alarms for the general security of Europe, which, as it appears to us, they ought to have seriously felt, and might have expressed, with greater justice, on the previous successes of her powerful adversaries.

We will not dissemble our opinion, that the decree of the National Convention of France of the 19th of November, 1792, was in a great measure liable to the objections urged against it; but we cannot admit that a war, upon the single ground of such a decree, unaccompanied by any overt acts, by which we or our allies might be directly attacked, would be justified as necessary and unavoidable. Certainly not—unless, upon a regular demand made by his majesty's ministers of explanation and security in behalf of us and our allies, the French had refused to give his majesty such explanation and security. No such demand was made. Explanations, it is true, have been received and rejected. But it well deserves to be remarked and remembered, that these explanations were voluntarily offered on the part of France, not previously demanded on ours, as undoubtedly they would have been, if it had suited the views of his majesty's ministers to have acted frankly and honourably towards France, and not to have reserved their complaints for a future period, when explanations, however reasonable, might come too late, and hostilities might be unavoidable.

After a review of all those considerations, we think it necessary to represent to his majesty, that none of the points which were in dispute between his ministers and the government of France, appear to us to have been incapable of being adjusted by negotiation, except that aggravation of French ambition, which has been stated to arise from the political opinions of the French nation. These indeed, we conceive, formed neither any definable object of negotiation, nor any intelligible reason for hostility. They were equally incapable of being adjusted by treaty, or of being either refused or confirmed by the events of war.

We need not state to his majesty's wisdom, that force can never cure delusion; and we know his majesty's goodness too well to suppose, that he could ever entertain the idea of employing force to destroy opinions by the extirpation of those who hold them.

The grounds, upon which his majesty's ministers have advised him to refuse the renewal of some avowed public intercourse with the existing government of France, appeared to us neither justified by the reason of the thing itself, nor by the usage of nations, nor by any expediency arising from the present state of circumstances. In all negotiations or discussions whatsoever, of which peace is the real object, the appearance of an amicable disposition, and of a readiness to offer and to accept of pacific explanations on both sides, is as necessary and useful to ensure success, as any arguments founded on strict right. Nor can it be denied, that claims or arguments of any kind, urged in hostile or haughty language, however

however equitable or valid in themselves, are more likely to provoke than to conciliate the opposite party. Deploping, as we have ever done, the melancholy event which has lately happened in France, it would yet have been some consolation to us to have heard, that the powerful interposition of the British nation on this subject had at least been offered, although it should unfortunately have been rejected. But, instead of receiving such consolation from the conduct of his majesty's ministers, we have seen them with extreme astonishment employing, as an incentive to hostilities, an event, which they had made no effort to avert by negotiation. This inaction they could only excuse on the principle, that the internal conduct of nations (whatever may be our opinions of its morality) was no proper ground for interposition and remonstrance from foreign states;—a principle, from which it must still more clearly follow, that such internal conduct could never be an admissible, justifying reason for war.

We cannot refrain from observing, that such frequent allusions as have been made to an event (confessedly no ground of rupture) seemed to us to have arisen from a sinister intention to derive, from the humanity of Englishmen, popularity for measures, which their deliberate judgment would have reprobated, and to influence the most virtuous sensibilities of his majesty's people into a blind and furious zeal for a war of vengeance.

His majesty's faithful commons therefore, though always determined to support his majesty with vigour and cordiality in the exertions necessary for the defence of his kingdoms, yet feel that they are equally bound by their duty to his majesty, and to their fellow-subjects, to declare in the most solemn manner, their disapprobation of the conduct of his majesty's ministers, throughout the whole of these transactions; a conduct, which in their opinion could lead to no other termination, but that, to which it seems to have been studiously directed, of plunging their country into an unnecessary war. The calamities of such a war must be aggravated, in the estimation of every rational mind, by reflecting on the peculiar advantages of that fortunate situation, which we have so unwisely abandoned, and which not only exempted us from sharing in the distresses and afflictions of the other nations of Europe, but converted them into sources of benefit, improvement, and prosperity to this country.

We therefore humbly implore his majesty's paternal goodness to listen no longer to the councils, which have forced us into this unhappy war, but to embrace the earliest occasion, which his wisdom may discern, of restoring to his people the blessings of peace.

This being negated without a division, Mr. Robert Smith presented a petition from the inhabitants of the town of Nottingham, which was signed by 2500 persons, praying for a reform in parliament. They disclaimed every idea of a revolution, and only demanded a restoration of those rights which had been established at the original formation of our constitution, but which were done away by length of time, and the various abuses that had crept into it.

Mr. Pitt said, he did not mean to prevent people from discussing any right they might have had to demand a reform: but he conceived it impossible for the house to receive the petition which had been just read, without breaking through every rule of order which it was bound to preserve.

The terms of the petition were couched in the most disrespectful language. One expression in it conveyed the highest insult that could be offered to that house—namely, that the constitution of this country had sunk into such grossness, as to be an insult on common understanding, and the representation existed only in a name, but not in reality. This was denying every right by which that house had acted: he would therefore give his decided negative against receiving any petition, unless it was drawn up in such expressions as were consonant with the dignity of the house.

Mr. Fox and others contended that the petition should be received; but on a division it was rejected. For receiving it 21, against receiving it 109.

Next day, Feb. 22, Mr. Taylor made a motion, tending to censure the building of barracks in various parts of the kingdom; which, on the side of administration, was contended to be a necessary measure, on account of the alarming state of the kingdom.

P O E T R Y.

ON POLITICAL PURSUITS.

TO W. COWPER, ESQ.

Parvis dives Concordia rebus. SENC.

WHILST others rush with frantic zeal
Across the fervid morn of life,
May I remote from tumult steal,
Where envy cannot gender strife.

Whilst others vaunt the public good,
And hoist ambition's swelling sail;
And boast amid the foaming flood,
A calm that cannot long prevail;

Might I, sweet soother of the mind,
With thee, obscure from glory, dwell;
And turn thy page—thy spirit find,
And feel a Cowper in my cell.

From thee distil celestial balm,
And feel the oil of comfort flow;
With thee enjoy a constant calm,
A calm a courtier cannot know,

Yes, friendly monitor of truth,
Congenial Cowper, let me scan thy page,
And learn, amid the misty morn of youth,
A lesson from enlighten'd age.

With thee partake the tranquil scene,
Where no dark Discord wings her way,
Or jarring tongue—or heart of spleen,
Disturbs the evening of the day.

With thee enjoy harmonious close
Of daily labour—'mid the smile
Of kindred souls—where friendship glows,
And bids fell politics recoil.

Ye demons to domestic peace,
Begone, nor taint my purer cell;
Where ev'ry dark dispute shall cease,
And universal concord dwell.

Can Cowper suit the ruffled breast,
Or can his peaceful note be heard,
Where ev'ry social sound's suppress'd,
And harsh contentious jar preferr'd?

Ah no! where passion darts her blaze,
Athwart the lustre of thy line;
She scares the eye, that else would gaze,
And sears the heart no longer thine.

Then let me quit the wrathful scene,
And seek thy friendly, soothing aid;
And live in lowly lot, serene,
Leneath the olive's peaceful shade.

There hearken to a still small voice,
That whispers wisdom from above;
That bids the humble heart rejoice,
And breathes humility and love,

How little think the giddy croud,
Who view with microscopic eye
The specious splendour of the proud,
And vent in vain the anxious sigh.

How little do they think the cot,
Or those who in a cottage live,
Have joys the wealthiest king has not,
And peace a palace cannot give.

NEOPHYTUS.

TO MR. ROBERT BURNS,

THE AIRSHIRE POET,
ON HIS CELEBRATED POEM OF THE
WHISTLE.

HAIL! son of Apollo, chief bard of
our isle,
Whose verses make sober and wanton to
smile;
Your fancy high tow'ring and lofty in
rhimes,
So pat to the purpose and taste of the times,
Ye friend of the Muses, your genius sur-
passes
All rhimers that e'er set a foot on Parnassus;
Through all Caledonia is sounded your
praise,
Obtaining the laurels, and wearing the bays.
Of all the grand strains that have flow'd
from your gristle,
None more to the life than the old Danish
whistle;
This whistle that's famed in old Scottish
songs,
No less than the hero to whom it belongs.
When the son of great Loda appear'd in
this land,
Defying our chiefs at the bottle to stand;
He found to his cost tho' he challeng'd his
fate,
That the sons of old Scotia were not to be
beat.

'Tis strange that a Dane should thus
daringly think,
Our heroes would bow to his godship in
drink—

A Brave Caledonian despises to yield,
To rivals in drinking, or foes in the field.

'Tis told us, however, that victor at first,
Ne'er blacksmith at work was posses'd of
such thirst;
But noble Glenriddle well season'd with
wine,
Soon vanquish'd the hero, he drank so
divine.

This whistle possessing for centuries past,
What pity! to lose such a trophy at last;
Glenriddle!

Heart page 296 Vol 10th



GENERAL MAGAZINE & IMPARTIAL REVIEW.

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Glenriddle! Glenriddle as ye've done before,
Apply to the bottle, and drink far't once more.

Draw cork after cork, and let bumpers o'erflow,
Disdaining to yield up the prize to your foe;
Convince brave Graigdarrocte'ervanquish'd you'd be,
You'd wallow in claret as deep as the sea.

Ye brave Caledonians let joys now abound,
And the fame of this whistle thro' Scotland resound;
The bottle's the friend that can banish despair,
The sweetener of life, and the curer of care.

Sing on, ye great bard, may your verse be sublime,
And long may you flourish immortal in rhyme;
May virtue arise, and may vice fall below,
And Britons victorious, wherever they go.
Airdrie. WILLIAM YATES, Jun.

TO MISS JANNET LITTLE.*

HAIL! heaven-taught maid, whose genius bright,
Apollo's nine inspire;
Whole fancy soars in paths of light,
Fill'd with poetic fire.

Accept these verses from a friend,
Th' effusions of a heart,
That knows no base, no selfish end,
Nor unbecoming part.

To see such sweet, such easy strains,
Flow from a female pen,
Must highly please all patriot swains,
And all impartial men.

Ye bards, no more your minds perplex,
Be verse no more your share,
Since Phoebus now the female sex
Makes his peculiar care.

O Jenny! highly favour'd fair,
In whose transparent mind
No wanton thought, no lurking snare,
Or prejudice we find.

Whilst themes of love inspire your lay,
In modesty's defence,
Long may you follow virtue's way,
Adorn'd by innocence.

May wit and modesty abound,
And may your rising fame
Through Caledonia's climes resound,
T' immortalize your name.

And may you, when you leave the earth,
On glorious pinions soar,
And to the author of your birth
Sing praises evermore.

Airdrie. WILLIAM YATES, Jun.

P O E M S,

BY SAMUEL JOHNSON, LL. D.

A U T U M N.

ALAS! with swift and silent pace,
Impatient time rolls on the year.
The seasons change, and nature's face
Now sweetly smiles, now frowns severe.

'Twas spring, 'twas summer, all was gay,
Now autumn bends a cloudy brow;
The flowers of spring are swept away,
And summer fruits desert the bough.

The verdant leaves that play'd on high,
And wanton'd on the western breeze,
Now trod in dust neglected lie,
As boreas strips the bending trees.

The fields that wav'd with golden grain,
As russet heaths are wild and bare;
Not moist with dew, but drench'd in rain,
Nor health, nor pleasure, wanders there.

No more while thro' the midnight shade,
Beneath the moon's pale orb I stray,
Soft pleasing woes my heart invade,
As Progne pours the melting lay.

From this capricious clime she soars,
O! would some gods but wings supply!
To where each morn the spring restores,
Companion of her flight I'd fly.

Vain wish! me fate compels to bear
The downward season's iron reign,
Compels to breathe polluted air,
And shiver on a blasted plain.

What bliss to life can autumn yield,
If glooms, and showers, and storms prevail;
And Ceres flies the naked field,
And flowers, and fruits, and Phoebus fail?

Oh! what remains, what lingers yet,
To cheer me in the dark'ning hour?
The grape remains! the friend of wit,
In love, and mirth, of mighty power.

Hast---preps the clusters, fill the bowl;
Appollo! shoot the parting ray:
This gives the sunshine of the soul,
This god of health, and verse, and day.

Still---still the jocund strain shall flow,
The pulse with vigorous rapture beat;
My Stella with new charms shall glow,
And every bliss in wine shall meet.

WINTER.

* Author of Poems, published by subscription.

W I N T E R.

NO more the morn, with tepid rays,
Unfolds the flower of various hue;
Noon spreads no more the genial blaze,
Nor gentle eve distills the dew.

The lingering hours prolong the night,
Usurping darkness shares the day;
Her mists restrain the force of light,
And Phœbus holds a doubtful sway.

But gloomy twilight half reveal'd,
With sighs we view the hoary hill,
The leafless wood, the naked field,
The snow-topped cot, the frozen rill,

No music warbles thro' the grove,
No vivid colours paint the plain;
No more with devious steps I rove
Thro' verdant paths now fought in vain.

Aloud the driving tempest roars,
Congeal'd, impetuous showers descend;
Haste, close the window, bar the doors,
Fate leaves me Stella, and a friend.

In nature's aid let art supply
With light and heat my little sphere;
Rouze, rouze the fire, and pile it high,
Light up a constellation here.

Let music sound the voice of joy,
Or mirth repeat the jocund tale;
Let Love his wanton wiles employ,
And o'er the season wine prevail.

Yet time life's dreary winter brings,
When mirth's gay tale shall please no
more;

Nor music charm—tho' Stella sings;
Nor love, nor wine, the spring restore.

Catch then, O! catch the transient hour,
Improve each moment as it flies;
Life's a short summer—man a flower,
He dies—alas! how soon he dies!

ANACREON, ODE IX.

FROM MRS. PIOZZI'S ANECDOTES OF
DR. JOHNSON.

LOVELY courier of the sky,
Whence and whither dost thou fly?
Scatt'ring, as thy pinions play,
Liquid fragrance all the way:

Is it business? is it love?
Tell me, tell me, gentle dove.

Soft Anacreon's vows I bear,
Vows to Myrtale the fair;
Grac'd with all that charms the heart,
Blushing nature, smiling art.
Venus, courted by an ode,
On the bard her dove bestow'd:
Vest'd with a master's right,
Now Anacreon rules my flight;
His the letters that you see,
Weighty charge, consign'd to me;
Think not yet my service hard
Joyless task without reward;
Smiling at my master's gates,
Freedom my return awaits;
But the liberal grant in vain
Tempt me to be wild again.
Can a prudent dove decline
Blissful bondage such as mine?
Over hills and fields to roam,
Fortune's guest without a home;
Under leaves to hide one's head,
Slightly shelter'd, coarsely fed:
Now my better lot bestows
Sweet repast, and soft repose;
Now the generous bowl I sip
As it leaves Anacreon's lip:
Void of care, and free from dread,
From his fingers snatch his bread;
Then, with luscious plenty gay,
Round his chamber dance and play;
Or from wine as courage springs,
O'er his face extend my wings;
And when feast and frolic tire,
Drop asleep upon his lyre.
This is all, be quick and go,
More than all thou canst not know;
Let me now my pinions ply,
I have chatter'd like a pye.

E P I T A P H

ON DRUNKEN TAM.

NOW drunken Tam's run out of
breath,
And laid fu' low in his last claithe,
Though fair against his will:
To part wi' life he was fu' laith,
He turn'd about, quo' he to death,
"Bring ben anither gill."

Airdrie. WILLIAM YATES, Jun.

T H E A T R I C A L I N T E L L I G E N C E.

TWO pieces have been brought out at
the Haymarket Theatre. The first
was an after-piece, called "Osmyrn and
Daraxa," which has not a single merit to
recommend it, except the music, which is
pretty.

The second was a new farce, called "The
Prize," the plot of which turns on the suc-

cess of a country apothecary, who having
gained a 10,000l. prize in the lottery, gives
up his business to his journeyman, and
commences gentleman. This character of
a new-made gentleman, Mr. Bannister, jun.
played with infinite humour. Madame
Storace, for whose benefit the piece was
played, performed the part of a French wo-

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man, and had an opportunity of shewing her talents in imitation and in speaking French, which she did with great fluency. Mrs. Bland played the part of a little black boy, in which the negro character is shewn to great advantage. The piece is animated with some pretty songs.

At Covent Garden a new pantomime was introduced, called "The Governor, or The Creolian Insurrection."

We have often had occasion to observe, that pantomime seemed lately disposed to exchange characters with comedy, by becoming more attentive to fable, and the probable connection of incidents. This pantomime has a love intrigue of artful contrivance, and considerable interest; its obstructions are formidable, and nearly insurmountable; and they are removed by affecting sufferings, the exertions of talents, and the performance of heroic actions.

The scenery, deceptions, and the performance, must be seen, to form a judgement of their excellence. A detail of them no pen can describe, without fatiguing the reader.

MARRIED.

G. F. Tyson, Esq. of Singleton, Suffex, to Miss Fletcher, of Lea, Hampshire.

Jonathan Kendale, Esq. of Old Burlington-street, to Miss Williams, of the same place.

Mr. Dearlove, of Saustoope, in the county of Lincoln, aged 96, to Mrs. Snaith, aged 84.

John Bailey, Esq. of Codicot Bury, Herts, to Miss Basil, of Redbourn.

The Hon. Archibald Stewart, second son of the Earl of Moray, to Miss Cornelia Pleydell, of Melbourn St. Andrews.

Henry Howard, Esq. of Corby Castle, to Miss Neave, daughter of Richard Neave, Esq. of Dagenham Park, Essex.

Dr. Bain, of the Hot Wells, Bristol, to Miss Rodbard.

Captain Foster, of the navy, to Miss Nina Herries.

Samuel Knipe, Esq. of Epsom, to Miss Sampson, of Dover.

T. B. Luxmore, Esq. of Okehampton, to Miss Cartwright, of same place.

Sir Bouchier Wray, bart. to Miss A. Osbourne, of Monks Hill, Gloucestershire.

The Rev. Mr. Methold, to Miss Maria Thomas.

Wm. Russell, Esq. of Powreh, to Miss Packington, of Westwood.

The Rev. Mr. Forster, of Byston, Rutlandshire, to Miss Goodfellow.

Thomas King, Esq. of Cossington, to Miss Arnold, of Loughborough.

DIED.

At Bombay, Dr. Alexander Grant Clugstone.

At Jamaica, aged 82, Mrs. Saunders, relict of Dr. Saunders.

Mrs. Williams, wife of the Rev. Wm. Williams, of Blackheath.

Brafs Crosby, Esq. alderman of London. Aged 88, Joseph Potts, Esq. mayor of Carlisle.

Aged 98, Mrs. Evelyn Smith, of Prince's-court, Westminster.

Robert Harper, Esq. of Heath, near Wakefield.

Aged 70, at Mepkin, in South Carolina, the Hon. Henry Laurens, formerly president of the congress of the United States of America.

Mrs. Weaver, of America-square.

Capt. Ferguson, Lieutenant Governor of Greenwich Hospital.

Thomas Hall, Esq. of Harpsdon Court, near Henly.

At Stamford, in Lincolnshire, Dundy Treacher, Esq.

Mrs. Margaret Rutery, of Llenmees, in Glamorganshire.

Aged 70, John Walkinshaw Crauford, Esq. of Crauford Land.

Mrs. Sandford, of Sandford, in Shropshire.

At Sunbury, Middlesex, Mrs. Elizabeth Joyce Reynell.

At Bath, the Countess Dowager of Caithness.

The Right Hon. Lady Dover.

Sir Thomas Mills, Knt.

Dr. George Monro, late physician at Minorca.

Major James Johnston, in the service of the East India Company.

Miss Rooper, of Berkhamstead Castle.

Richard Fyde, Esq. merchant, of Bristol.

H. Meyer, Esq. the celebrated painter.

At Camberwell, Miss Elizabeth Sewell, one of the people called Quakers.

Mrs. Theed, of Mark-lane.

Mrs. Drummond, of Spring Gardens.

Mrs. Havrefield, of Hampton Court.

Mrs. Brummel, of Charles-street, Berkeley-square.

Aged 75, the Rev. Digby Cotes, rector of Dore, in Herefordshire.

The Rev. William Slocombe, rector of Oake, in Somersetshire.

Capt. Francis Wemys.

At Tobago, Dr. Alexander Stevens.

Aged 94, Mrs. Barrow, of Woodfed.

At Buchanan, in Scotland, aged 104, Duncan M'Cullum, weaver.

Edward Atkins, Esq. of West Smithfield.

Sir Robert Lawley, bart. member of parliament for the county of Warwick.

Aged 82, John Spottiswode, of ———, Berwickshire.

At Port Royal, Jamaica, Capt. Dobson, of the 20th regiment.

At the same place, Captain Bateman, of the 10th regiment.

The

The Lady of Sir William Erskine, bart.
The Rev. M. Whitehurst, rector of
Hopton Wafers, in the county of Salop.

At Lichfield, the Rev. John Harrison,
vicar of Penn, Hammerwich, and Whichnor.

At his seat at Caen Wood, near Hamp-
stead, in the 90th year of his age, the Right
Hon. William Earl of Mansfield, a go-
vernor of the Charter-house, and one of his
majesty's most honourable privy council.

At Winchester, the Right Hon. Thomas
Wood Knollis, Earl of Banbury, Viscount
Wallingford, Baron Knollis, of Greys.
His titles and estates devolve on his only
son, William, Viscount Wallingford, a lieu-
tenant in the 3d regiment of foot-guards.

At Dynevor Castle, the Right Hon. Cecil
Rice Cardonnel, Baroness Dynevor, in her
own right. She was the only daughter of
the late William Earl Talbot, and grand-
daughter to the great Chancellor Talbot.
The barony of Dynevor, with large estates,
in the counties of Carmarthen, Glamorgan,
and Gloucester, descend to the eldest son,
the Hon. George Talbot Rice, the present
representative in parliament for the county
of Carmarthen.

In the 84th year of his age, Paynayoty
Ballachey, for many years fencing master
in the university of Oxford. He was born

at Sparta, and in the very early part of his
life entered into the service of the famous
Kouli Khan; after which he had served
under different States in three parts of the
globe; was at the battle of Dettingen, and
finished his military exploits in Germany
under the Duke of Cumberland.

Counsellor Grady, of Dublin, in conse-
quence of a wound he received in Park-
street from some ruffians, who stopped him
and fired at him before he could deliver his
purse.

Miss Hog, sister of John Hog, Esq. of
Norton, in the county of Durham.

Aged 89, the Right Hon. William Pon-
sonby, Lord Ponsonby, Earl of Belfborough,
in the kingdom of Ireland.

The Rev. Wm. Moore Tomkyns, M. A.
fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and
vicar of Amwell, in Herts.

In the Temple, Henry John Pemberton,
A. M. son of the Rev. Mr. Pemberton, of
Trumington, in Cambridgeshire.

At his chambers in Gray's Inn, William
Brimage, barrister at law.

At his house in Dean-street, Soho, aged
72, Mr. James Blythe, auctioneer.

At Edinburgh, the lady of Charles Wat-
son, Esq. daughter to the late, and sister to
the present Earl of Northesk.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

	Feb. 25.	Mar. 4.	Mar. 11.	Mar. 18.
Bank Stock - - - -	71½	72½	167½	78½
3 per Cent. Consolidated - - -	87½	88½	74½	78½
4 per Cent. Consolidated - - -	102½	103½	106½	108½
5 per Cent. Navy - - -	21½	21½	—	—
Long Annuities - - -	10 3-16	—	—	—
Short Annuities - - -	197½	195½	—	—
India Stock - - - -	8 pr.	8 pr.	7 pr.	—
India Bonds - - - -	—	—	—	—
South Sea Stock - - -	—	—	—	—
New Navy - - - -	7½ dif.	—	6½ dif.	6½ dif.
Exchequer Bills - - -	—	—	—	—
Lottery Tickets - - -	16 5 0	18 3 0	—	—

PRICES OF CORN AT THE CORN-MARKET.

	Feb. 25.	Mar. 4.	Mar. 11.	Mar. 18.
Wheat - - - -	36s. to 47s.	36s. to 47s.	37s. to 48s.	37s. to 50s.
Barley - - - -	28s. — 34s.	28s. — 33s.	30s. — 34s.	29s. — 36s.
Rye - - - -	28s. — 32s.	28s. — 32s.	28s. — 32s.	30s. — 35s.
Oats - - - -	16s. — 25s.	16s. — 24s.	16s. — 25s.	16s. — 25s.
Pale Malt - - -	38s. — 44s.	38s. — 44s.	39s. — 45s.	39s. — 45s.
Amber ditto - -	39s. — 45s.	39s. — 45s.	40s. — 46s.	40s. — 46s.
Peas - - - -	38s. — 41s.	38s. — 42s.	38s. — 43s.	38s. — 43s.
Beans - - - -	29s. — 32s.	29s. — 32s.	30s. — 35s.	30s. — 35s.
Tares - - - -	26s. — 30s.	26s. — 30s.	26s. — 30s.	26s. — 30s.
Fine Flour - - -	38s. — 00s.	38s. — 00s.	38s. — 00s.	38s. — 00s.
Second ditto - -	35s. — 00s.	35s. — 00s.	35s. — 00s.	35s. — 00s.
Third ditto - - -	32s. — 00s.	32s. — 00s.	32s. — 00s.	32s. — 00s.

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Literary Magazine.



FONTENELLE.

Engraved by Condé, from an Original Medalion.

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